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ABSTRACT

The role of advanced programs in urban universities and the relationship between large public urban universities and comprehensive state universities in less-populated areas are addressed. An overview of the issues, case studies in three states, a study comparing students in two doctoral programs, and information on the characteristics of large urban universities in the South are considered. Among the issues are the following: pressures exerted on states to make graduate and professional programs available in cities are linked to the concentration of part-time students on urban campuses who desire these programs; urban universities are seeking funds for expansion, while other institutions that are facing declining enrollments are seeking additional funds primarily on the grounds of quality improvement; urban schools emphasize serving urban populations and solving urban problems, while they generally also seek to expand their advanced offering in traditional arts and sciences; and state higher education agencies are faced with the problem of accommodating urban demands for educational programs that would duplicate ones already in existence in their states. The universities profiled in the case reports include an older, established institution and two of the newer state universities in the nation: the University of Louisville, the University of South Florida, and George Mason University. The higher education systems and conditions in Kentucky, Florida, and Virginia are also covered. "A Comparison of Students of Two Doctoral Programs in an Urban and in a 'Flagship' University," by Eva C. Galambes compares the characteristics of doctoral students in the psychology programs at Virginia Commonwealth University and the University of Virginia. A bibliography and information on research methodology are appended. (SW)

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Highlights

- The concentration on urban campuses of part-time students who seek opportunities for advanced educational programs creates pressures for states to make graduate and professional programs available in cities.

- As the fastest-growing segment of higher education, urban universities are seeking funds for expansion. In this era of declining enrollments, many other institutions are forced to seek additional funds primarily on the grounds of quality improvement.

- Urban university leaders emphasize the efforts of their institutions to serve urban populations and solve urban problems. At the same time, these campuses generally seek to expand their advanced offerings in traditional arts and sciences programs.

- The combination of faculty who pursue traditional academic professional goals and students whose interests are largely applied and pragmatic leads to a major dilemma for urban institutions. Administrators often characterize their urban institutions in non-traditional terms, while they encourage faculty toward traditional roles.

- State higher education agencies are faced with the problem of accommodating urban demands for educational programs which would duplicate ones already in existence in their states.

- Among the conclusions of this study:

  - Urban universities probably will continue to expand their advanced academic offerings.

  - State and local interest in economic development will continue to be a factor in the academic expansion of the urban universities.

  - Evidence of a limited study indicated that students who attended a doctoral program in an urban institution are very much like those who attended a program in the same discipline at a non-urban university. One exception found was the urban students' perceptions of lesser mobility, lending weight to claims that urban clienteles are basically placebound.

  - Given the resources required for expansion of urban universities and for general quality improvement throughout state systems, it is not likely that additional Southern public universities will join the ranks of the nationally prestigious institutions in the near future.

Urban Universities in the Eighties: Issues in Statewide Planning

Steven H. Smartt

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Southern Regional Education Board

Foreword

As higher education expanded over the last two decades, states sought to coordinate growth and thereby provide an orderly distribution of programs among public institutions. Today, in a climate of shifting enrollments and increased calls for accountability, states are searching for equitable ways to accommodate both growth and contraction within the same system.

The urban university has emerged as a strong competitor for program priorities, widening ranges of student clienteles, and growing shares of public support. In many states, it is clear that current population growth is proceeding in urban areas more than at the locations of the established comprehensive "flagship" universities.

In expanding population centers, there are demands for a growing range of educational services, some of which may be duplicative of programs offered elsewhere in a state. Particularly at issue are questions about the extent to which proposals for doctoral and professional programs should be viewed from a metropolitan or from a statewide perspective. Other urban institutions, including historically black universities, community colleges, and independent institutions, are also subject to statewide policy and planning concerns. This study, by focusing specifically on the larger urban universities, complements other SREB efforts to understand better the nature and role of all urban campuses.

Government and education officials charged with making these decisions are concerned with the needs of the communities in which the urban institutions are located, the statewide constraints which economy and cost-effectiveness may demand, and assurance that the public higher educational opportunities provided to the state's citizens are of the highest possible quality, given the resources available. This report is intended to assist in decision making by contributing further to clarification of institutional role and scope issues and definitions.

Winfred L. Godwin
President

Contents

Page

Foreword iii

Overview 1

- Cities and Campuses
- Access and Quality
- Solving Urban Problems
- State and Campus Perspectives
- Related Issues
- Alternatives and Implications
- Conclusions

The Case Studies 15

Florida 16
- Expanding Educational Opportunity
- Reactions and Expectations
- Legislative Viewpoints

University of South Florida
- Campus Characteristics
- Attitudes and Aspirations

Kentucky 27
- Strong Mission Statements
- A Competitive Atmosphere

University of Louisville
- A Local Clientele
- Urban Roots

Virginia 36
- A Statewide Plan
- Views from Campus and Capitol

George Mason University
- People and Programs
- Future Plans

A Comparison of Students of Two Doctoral Programs in an Urban and in a "Flagship" University 47
by Eva C. Galambos

Characteristics of Larger Urban Universities 56

A Comment About Methodology 59

Appendices

Urban and Non-Urban Universities Included in the SREB Study, 1980 60

Persons Interviewed for SREB Study, 1980 61

Bibliography 64

Overview

The dual goals of access and quality in higher education are at the same time complementary and competitive. Both the nation and the South have moved steadily toward overcoming the geographical, financial, and academic barriers that have separated people from campuses. Few would argue that higher education has not improved as these obstacles have diminished. But as public funds for higher education stabilize, it becomes appropriate to ask to what extent access can be promoted without negative effects on quality. If providing a given program at one or two locations is good, is availability at three or four even better? At what point do the limits of public finances and societal need outweigh the interests and convenience of individuals?

This report aims to explore these issues on one front — by an examination of the role of advanced programs in urban universities — and to summarize an SREB study to illuminate their understanding. Indications are that the public universities which have been built in metropolitan areas during the past quarter century will generally continue to gain more programs. However, not all programs may be appropriate to the mission of an urban campus, and often may duplicate existing advanced programs at other comprehensive institutions. And, because of competing priorities in education, this development of urban universities may frustrate efforts to maintain or advance quality in other programs and other institutions.

This presentation focuses on the relationship between large public urban universities and comprehensive state universities in less-populated areas. The primary matters under investigation in the SREB study were policy issues regarding the role and scope of these institutions within their respective state systems of higher education, the perceived effects of advanced program expansion on existing programs, and the future development of the burgeoning urban campuses.

All public institutions of higher education in a given state are interrelated, in that they have a common primary funding source and many compete for enrollments among the same groups of potential students. The creation of a new program at one institution generates a requirement for public dollars that might otherwise be appropriated to other institutions. And the existence of lower division courses at a graduate university in a location near a community college which offers transfer or parallel programs might be viewed as a duplicative effort that caters to the pool of local students. Private urban institutions also compete for public support and enrollments. Developments at public campuses are often viewed in light of their impact on private colleges in the area. Further, in some urban areas public universities have been established in proximity to historically black public institutions, creating a situation where duplication of programs can be wasteful and division of labor difficult.*

While aware of the potential impact which large, expanding urban universities have on other urban campuses — including private institutions, community colleges, and black colleges — the purpose of this analysis has been to investigate programmatic aspirations of these large urban institutions in relation to the other large comprehensive state universities, within the context of statewide coordination. Contrasting these centers of advanced graduate and

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* For a further description of how states and institutions are addressing these matters, see two reports edited by James M. Godard: *Educational Factors Related to Federal Criteria for the Desegregation of Public Postsecondary Education,* and *Black and White Campuses in Urban Areas* (Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, 1980).

professional education illuminates issues of state policy with respect to access and quality. Accordingly, the report discusses those aspects of institutional expansion which most directly bring the urban and non-urban campuses into competition and conflict over state priorities.

Cities and Campuses

The 1960s and early 1970s marked an era of unparalleled growth in higher education, a time when enrollments grew more rapidly than at any previous period in our nation's history, and public support for education in terms of appropriations advanced greatly. Much of the increase in participation was a direct result of the numerous new community or junior colleges which were built within commuting distance of many people in both urban and non-urban areas. This period also was one in which graduate and professional education programs became more accessible to larger groups of people.

Since the early Sixties, several of the larger Southern cities have developed a major public university, resulting from either creation of new campuses, elevation or redesignation of a growing institution as a major unit of a state system, or state assumption of a previously private or municipal institution. In 1968, Virginia Commonwealth University was formed as a major state university in Richmond by combining a medical college and the Richmond Professional Institute, which by then was a fairly comprehensive academic campus. About that same time, Georgia State College in Atlanta was pursuing development of an urban life center as part of its efforts to embrace an urban university concept. Soon thereafter this institution was named Georgia State University. In 1970, the Commonwealth of Kentucky assumed responsibility for the University of Louisville. And in 1972, Miami opened the doors of its first senior-level public campus, Florida International University.

Thus, community colleges did not account for all of the growth in college enrollments, at least not in metropolitan areas. In fact, of some 15 large urban universities in the South, all but one were created or made a freestanding unit of the state system within the last 25 years.

This expansion of opportunities for advanced education in the cities was a significant change from earlier years when most of the new academic programs were assigned to land-grant campuses — the comprehensive, "flagship"* institutions which typically are located in less urban or in non-urban areas. The growth of urban campuses followed the general demographic trend toward urban growth. Nearly two of every three Southerners now reside in a metropolitan area. Half of the 14 SREB states have urban populations in excess of 60 percent; three are more than 80 percent urban. In some instances, more than a fourth of a state's population is concentrated in a single metropolitan area.

Almost two-fifths of the nation's 162 Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA) are found in the 14 SREB states, which as a region accounts for less than a third of the nation's population. Twenty-one of the Southern SMSAs have a population in excess of 500,000. Metropolitan population growth in the South outpaced increases in non-metropolitan

* The term "flagship" is used in this report in referring to the older, comprehensive public universities. This label became more widely used after it appeared in a study by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. (*The Multicampus University*, by Eugene C. Lee and Frank M. Bowen. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971.) Readers of this report should be advised that the states discussed here — Florida, Kentucky, and Virginia — do not refer to any of their campuses as "flagship," nor do any of the campuses in these states use this label in official references to their institution.

population throughout the 1970s. Even when national trends showed signs of a reversal toward greater non-metropolitan growth early in the decade, the South continued to become more urbanized.

With the gradual urbanization of the South has come the creation and expansion of public universities in urban areas. Because there are now several graduate-level campuses where previously there had been only one or two comprehensive institutions, the role of these institutions within statewide systems of higher education becomes an issue in many states. More specifically, legislators and state agencies are faced with decisions concerning the extent to which urban institutions are obliged to provide a wide range of advanced academic programs at population centers.

The issue of the urban university's role and scope has become increasingly prominent for a number of reasons. First, many of the region's larger urban universities have become "large" only in recent years, and it is likely their enrollments will continue to grow. Given the trend toward part-time enrollments and older students, urban campuses have the strongest potential for growth within higher education in the coming decade. Second, these growing institutions generate most of the requests for new programs at the graduate level. The older comprehensive doctoral institutions have not petitioned state agencies for as many new programs because they already have or approach a full array of offerings; their program requests are modifications of existing offerings.

A third and critical factor is that urban university growth has coincided with the stabilization or even decline of higher education enrollments generally. This leveling of enrollments has come at a time when legislatures are concerned with many other public policy matters. These pressures make it likely that higher education will not continue to receive an increased percentage of total state funding and that inflationary trends will make more dollars purchase less. Many state leaders are increasingly emphasizing quality improvements, having already addressed fundamental issues of access. This presents a dilemma in which one side claims that to support continued expansion will inhibit improved quality and perhaps will move a statewide system toward mediocrity.

At the 1979 SREB Legislative Work Conference, two views were presented on the role of universities in urban areas — one by the head of a higher education agency, the other by a legislator from an urban district. Gordon K. Davies, director of the State Council of Higher Education for Virginia, argued against proliferation and duplication of graduate programs, stating that:

- † Traditional liberal arts and sciences doctoral programs, and most professional programs, should be offered only at the established, comprehensive universities.
- † Providing the fiscal support necessary for additional advanced studies will dilute the level of support for older, established programs and thus reduce their quality.
- † Advanced programs are not a prerequisite to achieving quality, although some institutions continue to claim they cannot approximate quality without a broad array of graduate offerings.
- † The notion that graduate programs should be located within commuting range of all who seek them is unrealistic.

Pat Frank, state senator from Tampa, Florida, took exception to several of these points. Among Senator Frank's observations and assertions were the following:

- † Unavailability of programs to placebound populations has the effect of discouraging participation. Because the majority of citizens live in urban areas, greater accessibility should be provided in those locales.
- † Relocation of programs is a reasonable means of providing educational opportunities because proliferation and duplication do not represent efficient uses of tax dollars.
- † The relationship between campus-based research and local commercial activity can be mutually beneficial to the state and to private enterprise; the potential for this kind of interaction is greatest in metropolitan locations.
- † Policies which restrict urban universities from developing graduate (doctoral) programs deliberately place advanced study beyond the reach of the majority of citizens. Both duplication and continuation of the current patterns are less desirable than diverting programs to the metropolitan campuses.

These positions typify the divergent views on how to respond to the pressures of access to programs as well as the demands of statewide coordination.

Access and Quality

At the core of the issue are fundamental questions of access and quality. Considerable effort has been made to provide educational opportunity to more and more people. In recent years, states have tried to make sure that one or more campuses, branches, or off-campus centers are within commuting distance of a large proportion of their residents. At the same time, the federal government has provided extensive programs of financial aid to students, thus easing the burden of economic barriers. Further, campuses of all levels and stature are giving increased attention to remedial education for students who are deficient in basic skills, which helps to overcome many of the academic barriers to higher education.

But now that campus facilities are nearby and efforts have been made to provide financial and academic assistance, there is pressure for easy access to a broader variety of programs. Campus officials are ever promoting new offerings or restructuring existing programs, either in response to local interest or out of concern that lack of growth may give an appearance of going backwards. Rare is the institution which will say it has no plans for new programs. Institutional ambition and aspiration for vertical growth appear to be instinctive.

Along another dimension, arrangements, such as the SREB Academic Common Market and various contractual agreements, between states and institutions provide access to programs not available in one's state of residence. Students who attend programs under these arrangements usually relocate geographically in order to enroll. But these arrangements show that states do not — and cannot — provide every type of academic program within easy reach of all residents.

There is probably wide agreement that a broad array of baccalaureate programs in the arts and sciences should be available at several campuses in each state. Similarly, master's programs in many disciplines can be offered without excessive commitments of expenditures, assuming a qualified faculty is in place and necessary library resources can be amassed. At the advanced graduate and professional levels, however, not only are associated costs much higher, but states have been more conscious of the shifting demand for manpower relative to available supply in fields and disciplines which are of an applied nature or have a reasonably

well-defined market for graduates. The difficulty arises in attempting to define the boundaries around these three categories: a) programs which all or most should offer, b) programs which some or few should offer, and c) programs which should be available at one or two selected locations. The three levels of conventional academic degrees (bachelor's, master's, and doctoral) do not necessarily correspond to the three tiers suggested here. Some state officials are firm in their position that campuses should not blithely chase enrollments by offering every program for which there appears to be a local interest. They recognize a difference between student demand and societal need. Some would argue that higher education should not engage in "social engineering" by imposing limits on programs or on access, but should depend on the marketplace to determine the demand for skills needed in the work force. This approach is reasonable only in a world of unlimited public financial resources which could tolerate the luxury of underutilized talents. Perhaps the concern for employment prospects is a less than perfect basis for decisions about programs, but it is an important and necessary consideration in view of tight resources and shifting enrollment patterns.

On the other fundamental question — that of quality — numerous concerns are being voiced today. In general, quality is assumed to be a direct function of dollars. It is argued that more money is needed to make an existing program better, that no advancement will be made without more money, and that a reduction of funding will reduce program quality. It is likely that academicians and legislators will have different ideas about what quality education is. The relevance of this issue to urban universities stems from the reaction of one institution to expansion at another. Thus, the posture of a comprehensive, flagship university may be one of disapproval when a growing urban campus implements a new offering which duplicates a program at the comprehensive institution, largely because it is assumed the financial support for the new program might otherwise have been provided to the existing program. But because higher education is such a labor-intensive operation, unless new faculty are required, a new program is not likely to be a significant financial commitment. When program additions are allowed only if existing programs are terminated, growth becomes even more of a political issue. Also, new programs sometimes are new in name only, and are actually a reshuffling of degree majors or tracks. In such cases, new students may be outnumbered by current students who have opted for the new track, thereby circumventing arguments that the urban and non-urban programs are competing for the same students.

Quality in education is given much attention, but is a source of frustration because it is so difficult to define. It is an intangible whose absence is often more easily recognized than its presence. In higher education, there is a perceived relationship between quality and longevity — an older established program or institution is thought better than a new one. Image and reputation are important to universities and are closely linked to perceptions of quality. One recent article pointed out that those institutions with several nationally-ranked departments several decades ago (in 1925 and 1939 studies) are largely the same institutions that rank high today. Financial strength is an underpinning of these institutions, but it is difficult for a good university to earn a broad reputation as a *great* university, and once reputed to be "great" an institution can long benefit from this image. In one study of quality in graduate departments, an internationally prestigious university was ranked third highest in a discipline which was not offered on its campus.

Solving Urban Problems

Many collegiate institutions claim a special distinction or ability to perform a unique function. Administrators are apt to mention the role of urban public universities in providing

educational opportunity to a heterogeneous clientele, including traditionally underrepresented, underprepared students and capable, placebound residents seeking advanced education. Another urban campus function likely to be mentioned is service to the supporting community. Social ills are more concentrated in the nation's cities, and it is to the solution of the many urban problems that these campuses attempt to make a contribution. These two functions — educating local students and solving local problems — are worthy of extensive analysis, but a brief discussion must suffice for this report.

Most urban universities do indeed enroll a significant portion if not a majority of their student body from the local community. For example, the University of Louisville's growth in enrollment after becoming a state institution in 1970 can be attributed to a tremendous influx of local students. An SREB study of the characteristics of two doctoral programs, one at an urban and another at a non-urban university, found that significantly more of the students at the urban institution applied to no other programs, selected the local institution because of convenience, and indicated location of the college as the most important factor in selecting a program. (A summary of this study is found in a later section of this report.)

The second emphasis of urban universities is the orientation toward urban problems. Progress comes slowly for any institution or agency attempting to deal with the persistent problems of unemployment, health care, race relations, housing, or economic blight, and the record of higher education in solving these difficulties may not be noticeably better than other efforts. But this is not for lack of involvement. Since the late 1960s, both urban and non-urban institutions have exhibited considerable interest in urban affairs and urban studies. In the early 1960s, there were nationally only some 25 university-based centers focusing on urban problems. By 1967, there were about 80; in 1970, they numbered more than 200; and by 1972, some 300 were identified. Many such centers are oriented toward policy analysis and applied research on urban problems. The Urban Observatory project was an example of a federally-supported effort to bridge the gap between the problems of city hall and the resources of the campuses.

The widespread concern on the part of higher education has not always produced successful results, however. A report by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education observed that some campus-based urban centers "...fell short as problem-solving and technical assistance agencies, partly because their mode of operation was more like that of a research agency of the university...."*

One matter of continuing debate is whether urban universities have some special claim on opportunities for involvement in urban problems simply because of campus proximity to the focus of these problems. Non-urban comprehensive campuses, especially the land-grant institutions, have been aggressive in seeking to provide public service to their states. For example, it was early in this century that the University of Wisconsin became committed to demonstrating that "the state is our campus." However, the importance of the comprehensive, flagship universities as the primary providers of applied service has diminished with the coming of new campuses located in almost all sections of every state.

Nonetheless, the flagship institutions are very reluctant to accept the notion that their sister campuses in the city have a monopoly on service to the local community. A later section of this report describes the mission statements of an urban institution and a flagship

* Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. *The Campus and the City* (Berkeley, California: Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1972), p. 66.

campus in Kentucky which were carefully negotiated with the result that the flagship university was not excluded from an urban service function. Additional evidence of flagship campus concern with urban areas can be found in the interest of these institutions in a newly-created Urban Affairs Division of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC). Practically all flagship campuses are members of NASULGC, and a few urban campuses are members as well. In states where the urban institutions participate in the Urban Affairs Division of the Association, the flagship campuses usually have exercised their option to join, too. Even in some states where the urban schools are not NASULGC members, the flagship institution has opted to be identified with the Urban Affairs Division. Some observers have commented that these developments are evidence of further posturing by the flagship schools, as they are ever ready to demonstrate an interest in urban concerns.

Representatives of comprehensive land-grant institutions are frequently critical of arguments that urban institutions are more qualified or better suited for involvement in urban issues. Harold Enarson, President of Ohio State University, questions whether urban universities have a special mandate or monopoly on applying their resources to urban areas. Enarson asserts that to categorize educational institutions as "urban" or "non-urban" on the basis of anything other than location is inappropriate; the fundamental concerns for educational access, relevant curricula, and applied research and service are central to all institutions in the public sector. It can be further argued that the supporting communities of most land-grant colleges are now well-populated, and that these comprehensive institutions are concerned with not only agricultural or rural affairs, but with the full range of human issues.

On another front, administrators on flagship campuses are questioning the logic behind efforts to channel federal dollars to urban universities for projects aimed at solving urban problems. Reacting to the idea that urban problems can be addressed in a fashion parallel to the land-grant idea of over a century ago, critics point out that social and cultural ills cannot be solved through technological advancements as could agricultural matters. In coming years, however, we may see campus efforts to amend these ills. Title XI of the 1980 Education Amendments authorizes funds for "urban grant universities." Congress may now appropriate funds to be distributed among applicants to address urban problems. Ninety percent of the cost may be supported by the federal program, which will encourage consortia of campuses to work jointly on these matters.

State and Campus Perspectives

What do these developments suggest for statewide coordination and policy concerns? The urban institutions are clear evidence of the progress made by states in extending educational opportunity to many individuals and groups of people who probably would not be served otherwise. These institutions are relative newcomers, yet they have made exceptional strides toward providing comprehensive offerings and establishing academic respectability. The central question remains. To what extent will states be able to support the continued expansion of these developing institutions? At what price will states be able to initiate new programs in urban locations, while maintaining long-standing programs of a similar nature at older institutions? How do legislators and others view the problems of statewide coordination, financial limitations of public dollars, concerns for quality, and institutional aspirations? These were the kinds of questions posed to legislators, state agency staff, and campus officials as part of the SREB study.

If the responses of the numerous educational and political leaders who cooperated in this study are a valid indication of relevant perceptions and attitudes, then prospects are strong that the urban institutions will continue to accrue political and public support for additional growth. But whether or not these campuses emerge as the dominant educational entities in their respective states remains to be seen.

The interviews conducted during this study allow some generalizations. First of all, most individuals in each of the groups — legislators as well as rank and file faculty — are aware that the continued development and status of institutions is more a matter of political support than educational reasoning. Frequently cited is reapportionment based on the 1980 census, from which many urban areas will likely obtain additional representation. And although the flagship institutions have traditionally been represented by numerous alumni in legislatures, the growing pool of alumni from urban institutions and the cosmopolitan mix of cities has made for policymakers who are more district-oriented. As one senator said, "My alma mater can't vote for me in the primary."

Reactions of legislative delegates from urban areas suggest that they are more ardent in their support of the institutions in their districts than are representatives from districts with flagship campuses. Most "non-urban" legislators acknowledged the likelihood of further development of urban universities. The nature of the growth they anticipate or would encourage, however, is not likely to jeopardize the strength of the older, more comprehensive campuses. Urban legislators, on the other hand, are more often proponents of major adjustments or extensions of their local institutions. Most frequently cited are possibilities for doctoral status, new professional schools, relocation of existing academic units from non-urban to urban locations, and generally setting aside tradition as a reason for restricting the growth of certain universities.

State coordinating and governing agencies for higher education are in the middle — a position not new to them — as they seek a balance between meeting educational needs and providing a reasonable division of labor among campuses. Agency staff are promoting controlled growth by encouraging certain kinds of new programs and discouraging others. In many states, and especially in the three states examined in this study, institutional role-and-scope, or mission, statements have been among the primary tools used to manage the situation. These documents, which are described in later sections of this report, are intended to serve as planning and policy guides, and also indicate to institutions the kinds of expansion or adjustment that would be most acceptable to state decision-makers.

Many of the state agency personnel with whom we spoke felt that urban universities, like other institutions in their state systems, had a reasonably clear perception of what kinds of growth would be encouraged and approved. Indeed, most of the program requests in recent years show evidence that institutions in urban areas are interested in providing professional or applied programs for local students. However, program approvals and pending requests indicate that the urban universities are also interested in more varied kinds of programs. In one state, of the program additions at the urban and flagship universities in the past five years, 70 percent have been at the urban campuses. New doctoral programs at urban universities in that state include education, law, public administration, and urban services. But also approved were art history, psychology, physics, and biophysics. Further, a dozen doctoral programs have been proposed for initiation at the urban sites within the next two years. In another state, graduate programs requested by an urban campus include not only social work, criminal justice, and public administration, but also liberal arts, anthropology, and statistics.

The perceptions of presidents at urban universities, as found in this study, offer some interesting insights into their plans for the institutions. One chief executive stated that there were no fields of study that were inappropriate for the university to offer, even through the

doctoral level. He did not view the existence of similar offerings at the state's non-urban comprehensive institution as precluding an urban campus offering and felt the location of the urban campus should outweigh the preexistence of similar offerings elsewhere. Another president wanted his institution to be recognized for distinction through programs that would combine applied and liberal arts studies. The students in applied programs might be given a more humanistic education component, and liberal arts majors could be provided management skills, for example. He was convinced that this approach, although not new or unique, would help justify a stronger graduate program in the arts and sciences. At another urban campus, the president and others told of having given up a master's program and transferring it to the non-urban flagship campus. When the program was eliminated, some faculty members were actually relocated. These campus officials hinted that they hoped this would serve as an example for certain urban-related programs being transferred to the urban campus, or for helping garner support for proposals of new programs.

Related Issues

In conversations with leaders at the urban universities, a number of issues or problems were frequently mentioned as indigenous to their institutions. Three matters were raised most often: the role of liberal studies in an institution which attracts a high proportion of professionally-oriented students seeking practical studies; the increased need for academic support services which are not adequately accounted for in budget formulas; and the juxtaposition of traditional faculties with nontraditional students.

Liberal Arts

A problem which might be characterized as one of institutional identity has to do with the role of the liberal arts disciplines in some urban institutions. Many students are interested in applied programs which relate to current or potential employment, and arts and sciences courses are available primarily to provide general education or "distribution" requirements. In the words of one of those interviewed, the city is comprised of individuals who are "oriented more toward professional credentials than enrichment." Even so, most campus representatives with whom we spoke felt strongly that the label "urban university" implied an additional function, not a delimited or restrictive role, and that an urban university must first be a university in the traditional sense, and then an urban university. They would have the urban institutions' arts and sciences departments take on a dual mission as classical academic units and purveyors of applied research and community service.

The problem of the function of liberal studies has been of particular concern at one upper-division institution. Most of their students at the undergraduate level enroll in the institution from community colleges and have taken half of their degree program, usually those courses which represent general education requirements. The remaining courses are then concentrated in the student's major area of study. Thus, in this institution, the primary role of arts and sciences departments is to provide required courses for students who major in those departments, which further minimizes their role in providing general education or elective coursework for non-majors.

In some respects this issue is an outgrowth of the dual ambition of urban schools: to be both traditional and nontraditional. They seek classical scholars in some instances but want them to be service-oriented. Were it not for the oversupply of available faculty in most fields, universities seeking to fulfill an urban mission might be less able to attract traditionally-oriented faculty members, or at least would need to be more precise in defining their mission as it relates to the arts and sciences.

Academic Support

A second special problem often mentioned by urban universities is that of academic support services. As proportions of nontraditional and under-prepared students grow, the need for adequate funding of support services is not unique to schools in urban areas. However, urban universities have attracted much larger cadres of students needing remedial instruction and counseling and advising services — functions that are critical to the academic progress and completion rate of students. These services are needed not only for undergraduates but in some institutions for advanced students as well. It is not uncommon for departments in urban institutions to have great difficulty in keeping track of students and knowing how many are in the program at a given time. This is because a good many older students are prone to enroll intermittently, taking one or two courses and then laying out two or three years, yet still intent on completing a degree program.

A number of urban universities have mentioned the direct funding of academic support functions as a critical need for their institutions. Because typical enrollment-based funding formulas do not take into account such needs, their costs are taken from general fund allocations. Those campuses with a high ratio of headcount to full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollments in effect are penalized.

A recent study by the University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee supports the conclusion that institutions which enroll high proportions of part-time students incur high administrative and support costs for registration, counseling, advising, and other services. These costs are more a function of headcount than FTE enrollment, which is based on total credit hours. If part-time students enroll in evening and weekend courses, as many do at urban institutions, the additional costs are especially noticeable. "Double shift" scheduling creates other related problems from an operational standpoint. As utility costs have risen dramatically, classrooms which must be heated or cooled for longer periods of time have created added budgetary burdens. On many urban campuses, improved lighting in parking areas and increased security personnel are also serious needs.

Faculty

Another problem stems from the combination of traditional faculties and nontraditional students. Especially now that higher education has shifted from a highly selective to a more accessible enterprise, some observers have expressed concern about a mismatch between the needs of today's students and the aspirations of faculty. In a major study of urban higher education in 1974, George Fischer, sociologist at the City University of New York, referred to the "faculty backlash" that can occur when professors find themselves in such a situation on urban campuses.

Although students are a very heterogeneous lot, with wide ranges of abilities and interests, faculties in higher education are by and large quite homogeneous. The academic process which produces faculty seems to instill a perpetual cycle of similar aspirations: namely, to discover (and pass on to students and peers) new knowledge. Faculty aspirations to work in a scholarly environment are probably as strong on urban campuses as they are at flagship institutions. Fischer says that some urban faculty seem to adapt their goals to those of their university and work to improve urban life. Others may try to change their orientation but become discouraged when their institution and peers do not reward this different kind of faculty role. Still others feel such strong ties to their profession that they would not consider adapting their values. The tendency of institutions to hire faculty with emphasis on instructional performance but to reward scholarly and professional productivity aggravates this situation.

There was some indication of this problem in comments voiced during the SREB study. Several of the campus administrators and faculty who were interviewed were asked what differences they perceived between faculty at the urban and non-urban institutions. Most often the respondents on non-urban campuses felt that the urban institutions put less emphasis on research, and thus the faculty would be less productive as scholars. It was interesting to contrast this view with the internal observations at urban campuses. Many of the urban administrators claimed that their newer faculty members were capable researchers but these same administrators were candid in stating that some faculty who were hired in an earlier period (for example, in the 1960s) were not quite as aggressive as academicians.

More than a few faculty members were critical of the shift they perceived in institutional expectations and rewards. "When the initial faculty was hired for this campus they were told the institution was to be atypical in its emphasis on teaching and public service," said one associate dean. "But on matters of promotion and tenure, the central administration seemed to become more and more conservative and traditional in its outlook. In many instances faculty are trying to be responsive to the apparent reward structure that is evolving, but for many of them it is an unpleasant surprise that they are expected to behave in a fashion contrary to their real strengths."

In most cases the role of faculty was viewed as a problem in transition, but while some saw it as a diminishing problem, others considered it to be worsening. In one institution, the faculty as a group was characterized as gradually becoming more suited to and supportive of an urban university mission. In others, evidence was cited to show the faculty becoming more traditional in orientation, further aggravating a mismatch between faculty reward structures and needs of the urban clientele. The different degrees to which various urban institutions seem to embrace the urban mission is evident in their searches for new faculty and administrators. Some place great emphasis on the urban role and prefer candidates with experience at other urban campuses. Others scarcely mention an urban orientation, even in lengthy announcements of position vacancies which describe the institution.

Alternatives and Implications

The reports in the next section of this document are more descriptive than analytical, but the policy questions which result from institutional aspirations are implicit. As was mentioned previously, this study singled out a particular kind of public institution which is characterized by location and level of offerings. Large public urban universities have grown considerably in recent years — not unexpectedly, given their low cost to the student, convenience, and flexible scheduling. In many ways, these institutions are an extension of the community college concept, providing advanced programs when and where needed. Traditionalists have criticized the mass marketing of higher education and have viewed flexibility as a compromising of standards. A full-time residential mode of instruction engenders thoughtful reflection, concentrated study, and socialization with peers and faculty which often is missing in part-time study by commuters, it is claimed. And the current expansion of urban campuses is viewed both as good and bad news: it is unfortunate that opportunities to expand educational offerings present themselves at a time when uncertainties about enrollments and economic fluctuations make commitments to new obligations difficult; however, cautious and deliberate growth now might lessen the need for pruning later.

What kinds of actions are suggested for responding to the planning and policy issues represented here? In conversations with participants in this study, the most frequently mentioned programming alternatives were: program duplication, relocation of programs, merger of institutions, developing cooperative or joint programs between institutions, and maintaining institutions at essentially their present status.

Advocates of program duplication are usually not interested in mere proliferation, but in making available certain degree programs at urban locations. If other campuses happen to already offer these programs, that is unfortunate in the opinion of these people, but they feel this should not preclude or overshadow the need for the urban-located program. It seems that for some programs, notably professional schools, the likelihood of duplication is not very strong. If a rationale built on pressing local need can be sufficiently convincing and if the clientele expected to be served will not seriously overlap with that of existing programs, the question of approval will move away from educational considerations to become more political and economic in nature. Arguments for new medical schools in urban areas refer to clinical opportunities and the health-care needs of underserved inner city people. Urban law schools may be justified by large numbers of working students who have no other choice for programs but to attend classes in the evening.

A related remedy, that of relocating programs from flagship to urban campuses, is taken up by those who also are convinced of the need for particular programs on urban campuses, but think duplication is wasteful and unhealthy to the welfare of the state system of higher education. This position is represented by the state senator's remarks paraphrased earlier about diverting programs to metropolitan areas, and it is shared by many of the urban legislators interviewed for this study. Shifts of programs have been brought about through desegregation plans and for reasons not necessarily related to urban issues. This approach has a smaller probability of being used widely than does program duplication, but it attracts more attention and reaction because it is so drastic a measure.

Another position suggests that if urban and non-urban institutions were merged, the whole matter of protecting turf would be defused. If campuses were viewed as part of the same institutional structure, proponents reason, redistribution of programs, faculty, and other resources would not be viewed as a battle between winners and losers. (It is interesting to note that some respondents suggested merger as a solution to a system that is overbuilt, in effect saying that if you have too many universities, start calling two or more by the same name.) Many campus leaders feel discussions of merger, as well as talk about program relocation, to be mere political rhetoric, but in Florida a merger between the state's most comprehensive institution in Gainesville and a smaller urban campus in Jacksonville was approved by the legislature and then vetoed by the governor. Many observers recognize the political logic and impetus for mergers, including the possibility of additional legislative support through consolidation of institutions.

Inter-institutional arrangements for offering degree programs are becoming more common. Florida institutions have been especially involved in these cooperative ventures. In 1979, there were some 16 cooperative doctoral programs in the state university system. In most instances these arrangements have extended an existing program from a comprehensive campus to an urban institution. Faculty from the originating campus travel to the urban campus to offer selected courses. Usually the students on the urban campus must satisfy a residency requirement at the originating campus, and the actual degrees are awarded under the name of that institution. While officials of the statewide system feel positively about these extended programs, most of the administrators and faculty involved at the campus

level are less than enthusiastic about them. One aspect which is especially touchy is that faculty at the receiving (usually urban) campus must be judged or certified by faculty from the comprehensive institution as acceptable for graduate faculty status for their courses to be creditable toward the program of studies.

The urban faculties expressed a greater interest in "joint," rather than cooperative, programs where institutions would share equally in faculty responsibilities, exchange of students, and conferring of degrees. This kind of arrangement may result from a three-school effort in Virginia, where 1980 legislation called for a feasibility study on providing engineering education in the state's three urban concentrations. Sense of program ownership is apparently a critical concern for the campuses involved, and thus many are interested in joint programs in which courses, faculty, and facilities are shared and either campus may award the degree.

Those who advocate holding the line on new programs which are duplicative may be accused of not being concerned about providing program access for all who can benefit. But as one legislator put it, "The 7-Eleven, convenience store approach to education is simply too expensive. The state is not obligated to offer all programs wherever two or more are gathered." One state's higher education coordinating council has gone on record with a position that essentially would not allow new advanced programs in traditional arts and science disciplines, and would permit only limited "appropriate" new graduate and professional programs of an applied nature at the urban institutions.

Conclusions

What might we conclude from a distillation of the many comments offered from participants in the interviews and from review of recent actions and relevant materials? The six inferences which follow are based on observations made during the SREB study.

1. Urban universities will continue to expand their program offerings. Practically all persons whom we interviewed expect the urban campuses to be the primary growth sector within higher education during the 1980s. Most of the requests for new programs will have relevance to the location of these institutions in urban settings, but many requests will stem from the basic institutional inclination to become more like a traditional comprehensive university. If most requests for new programs at urban universities are for pragmatic or applied kinds of programs, it will be easier to justify additions. But petitions can be expected for duplicative programs in areas such as journalism, home economics, library science, and social work, and — the record suggests — more traditional arts and sciences programs, too.

Because of the momentum they have developed and because of the strong and growing political support they enjoy, it seems highly probable that urban universities will not be stifled to any great extent. The urban campuses view role-and-scope and mission documents more as challenges to their creativity than as limitations on their development.

2. Urban universities will continue to reflect their location by providing programs which serve the basic educational interests of placebound, traditionally under-represented clienteles. They also will show concern for urban problems by offering the expertise of academicians in seeking solutions to these problems. These programs for local students and the study of urban problems will combine to lend credibility and generate additional support for other facets of the institutions' development. On this foundation of "urbanism" the campuses will more readily be able to build more traditional kinds of programs.

3. States will be inclined to allow expansion at urban campuses because of the potential economic development that can result. If high technology industries seek locations that offer both available manpower and educational opportunity for technical and managerial training, states are going to oblige. In fact, states and cities will be inclined to anticipate business and industrial interests and have educational opportunities in place as drawing cards. If the universities are helpful in this respect and if they also claim the necessity of strong advanced programs in traditional disciplines for doing a better job, it is likely they will be granted those programs as well.

4. It will be extemely difficult in the foreseeable future for the South to elevate any more campuses, urban or flagship, to the ranks of the nationally prestigious "quality" universities. Because both expansion and quality improvement require financial commitment, these naturally are viewed as competing demands. But, qualitative advancement will be difficult to achieve because of a number of factors — the enrollment situation, inflation, shifting political power structures and, perhaps most important, a lack of consensus about higher education priorities in relation to other public demands.

5. The conflict between urban-oriented faculty roles and traditional institutional rewards will persist. Only institutions which are able to embrace and make clear their nontraditional orientation, to seek out a faculty sincerely committed to the institution's mission, and to reward those who demonstrate this commitment in their teaching and other activities will make progress in addressing this imbalance. Because of their size, diversity, and interest in becoming more comprehensive, few if any of the institutions studied in this project will be inclined or able to resolve this conflict on a broad scale.

6. State agencies will be more likely to use cooperative arrangements to extend degree programs to urban campuses in lieu of approving new, free-standing programs. This mechanism may not prove satisfactory in the long run, but it will provide some form of access and allow institutions an opportunity to demonstrate the extent of local demand.

In summary, states have responded to the growth era by locating institutions within reach of the large majority of the citizenry. It now is apparent that not all institutions are created equally and that, having met the need for institutional access, states are faced with claims of programmatic access as a right rather than a privilege. With strong public and political support falling behind universities in metropolitan areas, these institutions are in a good position to continue their expansion. Some legislators see development of urban institutions as essential and will continue to advocate duplication or, if necessary, transfer of programs. Other policymakers and many leaders of flagship campuses fully expect additional growth at urban institutions, but will question the wisdom of program proliferation and its effect on quality. As state higher education agencies try to oversee the public sector as a unified system, they will be under pressure to enhance the position of urban institutions and may be circumvented by the legislative process if they are not responsive to these pressures.

The Case Studies

The balance of the report offers descriptions of urban universities in three states. They are: in Florida, the University of South Florida, in Tampa; in Kentucky, the University of Louisville; and in Virginia, George Mason University, located in Fairfax.*

These institutions and their respective states offer views of the urban university in different settings. Florida is the most urbanized state in the South, with 86 percent of its population in metropolitan areas. Kentucky has about half as many people as Florida, and they are much less concentrated in urban locales (45 percent). Virginia has an "urban crescent" along its eastern region and about two-thirds of the state's population is metropolitan. Continuing a widespread trend which began in the Sixties, many of the principal cities where urban universities are located have lost population within their corporate city limits while total metropolitan population has advanced. Often the slight population loss in a city over a decade is actually the net effect of some thousands of middle-class residents moving out to the suburbs and nearly as many lower income newcomers moving into the city. The result can be an increased demand for social services coincident with a weakened economic posture, due largely to a declining tax base.

The three states discussed have different kinds of higher education systems. Florida governs its nine public universities through a board of regents and chancellor. Kentucky and Virginia oversee higher education at the state level with coordinating agencies. Florida and Virginia have developed comprehensive systems of community colleges separate from their senior institutions; Kentucky community colleges are under the University of Kentucky administrative structure.

The universities profiled in the following case reports include an older, established institution and two of the newer state universities in the nation. One is located near the central business district of its city, while the others are in suburban locations. Included are schools which have matured from branch campuses or extension centers into freestanding institutions. One is a multi-campus university with a widespread service area. The supporting communities represented are diverse as well: a river city, a harbor town, and a suburban spoke to the nation's political hub.

A common trait among these different universities and their cities is the attention given to their places within their states' higher education system in a time of shifting enrollment patterns and increased demands on strained state budgets. Discussions about the role of these campuses are frequent, and similar issues are likely to become more prominent in other states. These summaries are in some ways like a snapshot, referring to dynamic situations as though constant. Some of the observations are based on interviews with a small sample of educational and political leaders. In those instances where an opinion is reported as though it were firm resolve or consensus, it should be remembered that campuses are not dissimilar to legislatures in that seldom does the organization speak in one accord. It is hoped these reports will help educators and policymakers better understand one aspect of current issues in state planning and thus contribute to better informed decisions.

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* Case studies of three other urban universities were prepared as part of this study. Copies of these reports on Florida International University, Old Dominion University, and Virginia Commonwealth University may be requested from SREB.

Florida

Like most states, Florida responded to the growth era of higher education in the 1960s by creating several new institutions and locating them in or near various population centers. The state has a system of 28 community colleges, 24 of which were established between 1957 and 1972. Similarly, six of Florida's nine public universities opened their doors between 1960 and 1972. Enrollment in the universities grew from 27,000 to nearly 89,000 during those 12 years. Ninety-six percent of the state's population lives within 50 miles of a state university campus or center, and this same proportion of the state's residents are within commuting distance to a community college. The community colleges and universities were developed in coordinated fashion — four of the six new universities were established as upper division institutions, leaving to the community colleges the major role in freshman and sophomore coursework for students seeking bachelor's degrees. Even the universities with a full undergraduate division enroll substantial numbers of community college transfer students, and in many, the junior class is often larger than the freshman class because of limitations on the number of first-time freshmen they enroll.

Governance of the nine universities in the State University System of Florida is vested in a 10-member Board of Regents. The Board's professional staff is headed by a chancellor, who serves as chief executive of the system. The Florida Cabinet, which includes the governor,

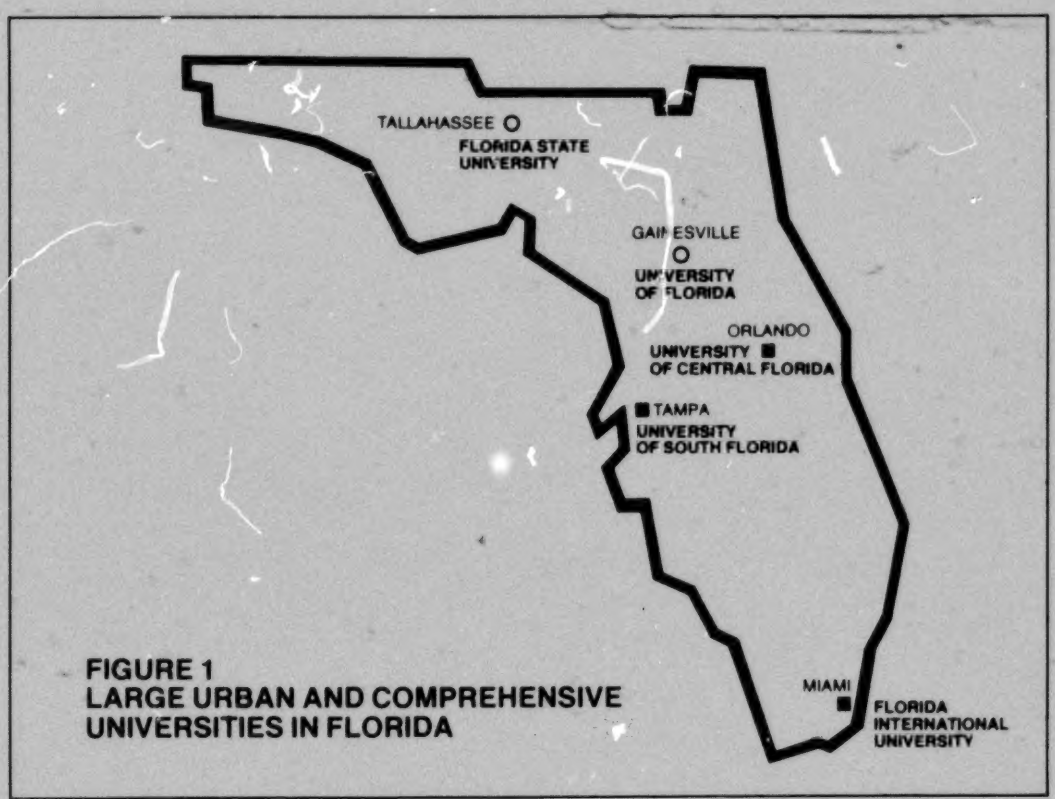

FIGURE 1
LARGE URBAN AND COMPREHENSIVE UNIVERSITIES IN FLORIDA

secretary of state, state treasurer, attorney general, commissioner of agriculture, state comptroller, and commissioner of education — all elected officials — serves as the constitutionally defined State Board of Education and is the authorized policy-making and governing body for public education in Florida, including higher education. The State Board has historically acted in *pro forma* fashion on matters affecting the state university system, but in recent years has become more assertive in exercising its budgetary authority. The state universities are directly responsible to the Board of Regents and the chancellor. A separate Postsecondary Education Commission ("1202 Commission") has served an advisory function, viewing all levels and sectors of postsecondary education as a whole.

Florida's first three public universities were all established in the 19th century. The University of Florida, in Gainesville, is the flagship in the system and has the most comprehensive array of advanced graduate and professional programs in the state, including a medical center. Florida State University, located in Tallahassee, was founded in 1853, and until 1947 was a woman's college. Since that time the institution has grown into a major center for graduate study, having by the mid-1960s established itself as the state's second comprehensive research university. Florida A&M University, also in Tallahassee, is an 1890 land-grant college which originally served a black student body, and during the past decade has broadened its programs and mission in an effort to serve a more diverse clientele. It is of historical relevance that convenience and access were considered in the location of the University of Florida and Florida State University — one to the east and the other to the west of the Suwanee River — in an era when the northern and central portions of the state were the more populous.

Expanding Educational Opportunity

In an effort to expand educational opportunities to more citizens, new universities were established in all sections of the state. Six new institutions were placed in the largest concentrations of population: Tampa-St. Petersburg, Orlando, Boca Raton (Palm Beach County), Pensacola, Jacksonville, and Miami. Four of these new institutions (in the last four cities mentioned above) were established as upper-division universities, offering courses at the junior class level and above. These urban campuses provided many graduate programs to serve the professional and job-related interests of local residents. The new institutions in central and southern Florida locations experienced more rapid enrollment growth than did those in the northeast and northwest, due in part to their programs for students who typically were older, placebound, and employed.

State officials have been supportive of the general availability of master's programs, even when availability has meant program duplication. But as institutions have sought to establish doctoral offerings, the coordination of efforts and distribution of programs have called for more careful allocation. Since 1965, 31 doctoral degree programs have been approved by the Regents at the nine universities. A third of them are at urban universities, primarily the University of South Florida, which has its main campus in Tampa.

By the late Seventies, it became necessary for the Board of Regents to reassess its progress and reconsider its assumptions about higher education. Many factors were contributing to this circumstance: earlier enrollment forecasts had not been realized; financial support per student was being eroded by inflation; the collective aspirations of all nine institutions could not be accommodated; there were concerns that the state had overextended itself and the system was overbuilt; and many parties were critical of the effects of the recent growth on overall quality and on some programs specifically.

In 1978, the Regents adopted several systemwide policy guidelines which addressed an assortment of issues ranging from quality of instruction, to lifelong learning, to admissions, to program duplication, to branch campuses and centers. During discussions of the planning document, one proposed policy drew strong opposition from campus and political leaders in the urban areas of the state. At one point, a state legislator petitioned the state Supreme Court to enjoin the Regents from adopting the plan. The policy would have designated the University of Florida (UF) and Florida State University (FSU) as the state's only comprehensive graduate institutions, and the other seven universities would have been limited to programs which respond to local students and the community. Some state officials feel the intention of this policy was misinterpreted, and that the spirit of the proposal was to encourage the individual campuses to define differentiated missions with a focus on localized needs for higher education. Understandably, however, the restrictive aspects of the proposed policy got most of the attention. The Regents approved the overall plan, but eliminated the controversial policy from it. The Regents also changed some of the language in the report to emphasize that it is a planning document composed of goals and guidelines rather than, as orginally drafted, a compilation of "authoritative and enduring" policies.

In the 1978 session, following the Regents' consideration of the controversial policy, legislators from urban districts — primarily Tampa and Miami — took up the cause of graduate education in urban universities. One bill, which passed the Senate but failed in the House, called for a review of all graduate programs with attention to the appropriateness of their location. That review would then have been the basis for legislative transfer of programs from one campus to another.

The next year, the Regents extended the planning process by developing individual institutional role-and-scope statements consistent with the earlier systemwide guidelines. Each university submitted proposed role-and-scope statements, including its mission and plans for new academic programs, which were then used as a basis for the statements adopted by the Board of Regents in September 1979. Two schools — UF and FSU — are referred to as "comprehensive, graduate research" universities. The University of South Florida (USF) is called a "comprehensive metropolitan" university, and Florida International University (FIU) in Miami, a "metropolitan multi-purpose" university. More than random bureaucratic labels, these designations are reported to have been carefully negotiated in each instance.

The most recent document which has significance for these issues is a report of the Joint Legislative and Executive Commission on Postsecondary Education. This group was created by 1979 legislation as a compromise among legislators seeking to reorganize higher education governance in the state. The Commission studied several aspects of postsecondary education, including planning, governance, organization, finance, and quality. Its March 1980 report states that wasteful and unnecessary program duplication is an "unjustifiable limitation on quality," and that continuing institutional expansion is an inappropriate mode of operation. The report recommends that programmatic access, economic development, demography, and student demand be taken into account in educational planning. It also acknowledges that funding should differentiate between emerging institutions and established institutions. In a section on the role and scope of institutions, the report calls for feasibility studies on the merger of the University of North Florida (UNF), an upper division campus in Jacksonville, to become a campus of UF; and the merger of Florida Atlantic University (Boca Raton) and FIU, suggesting that these two upper-division campuses form a four-year institution. Merger of institutions is a matter which frequently arises in the

legislature but seldom attracts sufficient support; the 1980 session was an exception. The UNF-UF merger was part of a comprehensive bill to restructure postsecondary education in Florida, but was vetoed by the governor.

A major recommendation by the Commission was creation of a new master planning agency, the Postsecondary Education Coordinating Council, composed of the Commissioner of Education and 10 lay appointees. Program, budgetary, and planning authority of the Board of Regents and the Community College Coordinating Board would be under final approval of the proposed Council. The report also advised the abolishment of the 1202 Commission, as the Council would assume its functions. The 1980 legislature sought to reorganize postsecondary education, essentially along the lines of the Study Commission's report. As mentioned above, the package was vetoed, but the governor has taken steps to strengthen the 1202 Commission to take a more central position in statewide planning. Sentiments of change will be voiced during future legislative sessions, as the urban delegates continue to advocate expansion of opportunities for universities in their districts. The present study attempts to better understand some of the forces behind these issues.

Reactions and Expectations

For the most part, senior administrators and academic officers at the state's two comprehensive research universities do not give indication of being particularly threatened by the expanding role of the urban campuses. They do, however, express concern about proposals for extreme adjustments, such as program relocation, and they readily offer justification for their own programs and the advantages of their campus location.

These officials of non-urban campuses fully expect the urban schools to grow while their own institutions remain fairly stable in enrollments and programs. They recognize the need to make programs available to many people, and they feel it wiser to accept that fact than to engage in extended battles over turf. At the same time, they are concerned about the financial requirements of additional programs, but some commented that Florida's population growth should help justify and support more programs.

Duplication of undergraduate programs and most master's programs is viewed as desirable and appropriate. And there are sound reasons for many graduate programs to be located at urban universities, these campus representatives feel. However, the location of Ph.D. studies is a more serious academic issue. Interest in placing such programs "where people are located" is not always sufficient cause for establishing them. Some academic officers at the comprehensive, research campuses asserted that doctoral work in certain fields should not be part-time, minimal residency programs, and that institutions show lack of academic integrity in offering doctoral study of this kind.

Many commented that relocation of programs from non-urban to urban campuses was the most detrimental and least desirable means of accommodating program interests of urban residents. It was agreed that there is a legitimate need for commuter institutions, but the state should not go overboard by trying to reduce all of its universities to the same level. Diversity within the system is seen as one of its strengths. Other campus representatives view the talk about program relocation as political rhetoric.

In response to the arguments about the wealth of opportunities for urban institutions to supplement their programs, such as availability of internships and input from practicing professionals, the non-urban schools view things quite the opposite. FSU, being in the state

capital, has numerous resources even though located in a moderate-size city. Any students who have to relocate for internships and clinical experiences in large cities are more likely to be immersed in the assignment than those serving in a part-time job around the corner or across town. Also mentioned were disadvantages of relying on adjunct faculty who often are not committed to their teaching assignments, and that substantive internships are more important than the perspectives of adjunct faculty. Finally, effective teaching is not dependent on location of the institution, but on the quality of the faculty.

In summary, the comprehensive research institutions are not especially anxious about the further development of the newer campuses, but they offer articulate commentary on the potential impact of haphazard, illogical remedies to satisfy urban interests. One school plans to continue to argue for quality while seeking as much external funding as possible to try to lighten the effects of diluted support within the state.

Board of Regents staff members spoke of the inevitable growth of new programs at urban universities, while the existing comprehensive campuses will hold the line and make fewer requests for programs. The expected growth — and the kind of growth that will be permitted— will be in applied and professional areas, such as public health, law, criminal justice, public administration, and others. State-level academic affairs staff seem to prefer cooperative doctoral programs over establishment of free-standing duplicative offerings or relocation of programs. The state of Florida has used the cooperative approach in which an existing doctoral program makes available some of its coursework on another campus, using faculty from both institutions. Students must satisfy some residency requirements and the degrees are awarded by the primary institutions. The Regents staff members felt the arrangement has worked well, but campus persons from both sponsoring and primary institutions expressed many reservations about the success of the programs.

Legislative Viewpoints

In recent years, legislative activity aimed at restructuring higher education governance in the state has resulted in the Regents and the institutions being less than aggressive in their policy and program proposals, including their interpretation and application of the new mission statements.

Florida legislators tended to be the most strongly opinionated of the lawmakers interviewed in the three states. They were well informed about the relevant issues involving statewide coordination and governance of higher education, and few were neutral in their positions on the future role of urban institutions. Mergers of institutions were frequently mentioned. Some legislators see merger as the only means to alleviate the pressures of competition, others view it as a way to increase educational opportunity and flexibility in programming. One individual close to the legislative process was convinced that many universities give lip service to the urban mission, but that few understand the functions of an urban institution and its implications for programming. Sometimes coalitions of delegates from a metropolitan area and from a district with a comprehensive university have collaborated on efforts to combine the institutions in their districts. The non-urban school would supposedly gain legitimacy from having an urban location, and the urban school might obtain access to numerous doctoral offerings.

The Florida lawmakers seem to be essentially divided into two camps concerning these matters, with urban representatives in one and non-urban in another. This is an

oversimplified characterization and it is likely that few if any legislators possess all of the opinions described here, but the two factions might be said to view these issues to some extent as follows.

Urban delegates feel the popular and political advantage is in their favor. It is not likely, they say, that large population centers will tolerate less than first-class institutions, and the political process will not deny this wish. Assumptions about program location based on tradition are inappropriate. There is little hope that the state university system can respond to higher education needs in Florida in the year 2000, given the present structure and location of programs. Early patterns of program allocation were not inappropriate, but they have become anachronistic. Efforts to expand the urban schools are not incompatible with efforts to improve quality of education. In eight to ten years, one or more of the urban universities will closely resemble UF and FSU in scope. Program relocation is more reasonable than program duplication, which is a waste of public dollars. Reapportionment will give a significant boost to urban political power in seeking to advance the position of urban campuses. Access to higher education institutions has been made available to most everyone, but now attention must be given to access to a wider variety of programs.

Those who represent a more traditonal viewpoint supportive of the flagship and other comprehensive institutions take a different position. Many of these legislators, some of whom represent districts where the comprehensive institutions are based, remain convinced of the importance of residential campuses, and the value of "going off" to college. Further, while recognizing the need for general access to higher education, they do not feel the state is obligated to provide virtually all academic programs within driving distance of everyone. They would argue there is a difference between student interest in a given program and societal needs for more graduates in that field. Another often mentioned theme is the negative impact which rampant duplication of advanced programs will have on quality. These legislators are cautious about the damage that can be done to the state's long-term investment in having built programs of some distinction. Relocation of programs, as though some kind of interchangeable gears, is simply not feasible.

Administrators feel the general legislative sentiment and allegiance continue to be supportive of the flagship, comprehensive campuses, and that political action by legislators from urban districts is often more polarized than coalesced. They feel that little more will happen to ameliorate the situation between urban and less-urban campuses until the political clout is reordered as a result of reapportionment. It might then be possible to realistically discuss relocation and duplication of programs. The interest of one urban campus in relocation of programs is illustrated in the following case study.

University of South Florida

Tampa and St. Petersburg together — often referred to as the Bay Area of Florida — have become a population center in relatively recent times. Until the latter part of the 19th century, the Bay Area was not much more than a harbor for merchant ships on the Gulf Coast. As the state began to market its monopoly on sunshine, Tampa Bay became the population and economic center on the western coast of the Florida peninsula. Following trends of most major cities in the Seventies, Tampa lost population within its city limits (down 4.6 percent from 1970 to 1977), while its suburbs in Hillsborough and neighboring counties grew. Hillsborough County had a population increase of some 19.2 percent from 1970 to 1978, and the three-county SMSA, which includes Pinellas (St. Petersburg) and Pasco counties, grew 28.3 percent during the same period.

Tampa is the eighth largest seaport in the United States (based on tonnage) and generates much of its economy from the Gulf waters. Like much of central and southern Florida, tourism and entertainment also contribute significantly to its economic activity. Tampa is more of a business and financial center than St. Petersburg, which is home to many older retired persons and host to most of the area's vacationers.

Higher education in Tampa-St. Petersburg includes the University of Tampa, a picturesque private campus and downtown landmark; Eckerd College, formerly Florida Presbyterian College; and the Stetson College of Law, a branch of its main campus in Deland. Two large public community colleges serve the area — Hillsborough and St. Petersburg — each with multiple campuses. Since the 1960s, the University of South Florida (USF) has been a dominant institution in the area. In addition to a main campus in Tampa, the university has branches in St. Petersburg, Ft. Myers, and Sarasota.

USF was the first of Florida's six universities created during the expansion period, and thus was the first to be located in an urban area of the state. In fact, USF calls itself the first major state university in America planned and built entirely in the 20th century.

The main campus of USF is located about 10 miles northeast of downtown Tampa. Created in 1956 and enrolling its first class in 1960, the campus was built amid some 1,700 acres. The 40 buildings are of modern design and most are set apart by large well-kept lawns dotted with palm trees and criss-crossed by sidewalks. The catalog describes the open design of the buildings as creating "casual accessibility." The main thoroughfare to the campus is the address for a major shopping mall and a widely representative sampling of fast food establishments. Not far away are some of the area's major industrial sites, including a canning company and a paper products manufacturer.

The Florida Board of Regents has assigned to each state university a service area, comprised of specific counties and the corresponding community college districts. This was done both to promote institutional responsiveness to educational interests of all citizens and to avoid overlapping of effort among universities. The USF service area extends across 15 counties, and is largest among the nine universities. In these 15 counties reside nearly 2.5 million people — more than a fourth of the state's population. The combined population of the area increased by 34 percent from 1970 to 1978. Seven of Florida's 28 community colleges are within this area. USF was assigned this large responsibility primarily because it has the most comprehensive system of branch campuses of all the nine state universities. The St. Petersburg campus was opened in 1965. Ft. Myers, a city of over 34,000 (1977) 120 miles to the south, became the site of a third campus in 1974. And in 1975, the state assumed control of New College, formerly a highly selective, private, nontraditional liberal arts college, and incorporated it into the USF structure. Eighty-seven percent of all course credit hours are generated on the main campus in Tampa. Twenty-one percent of the university's coursework is offered after 5:00 p.m. and on weekends.

Campus Characteristics

USF's headcount enrollment was 23,495 in the fall of 1979, up 3.1 percent from 22,781 in 1975. It is now second largest in the state university system in headcount enrollment, but ranks third in FTE, behind UF and FSU. The state's systemwide growth is expected to be 3.9 percent, while projections show FTE enrollment growing by 8.8 percent during the period 1979-1985, and some USF officials feel that estimate to be conservative.

Undergraduates entering USF in 1979 had a mean SAT score of 952, with a median of 940. Some eight percent of all USF students are from outside of Florida. The median age is 22 years. Forty percent are employed at least part-time. The university has graduated over 45,000, 80 percent of whom are still in Florida and 60 percent in the Bay Area. Over 210,000 people have enrolled in credit and non-credit courses during the university's history.

There are 10 major academic units within the university organizational structure: arts and letters, business administration, education, engineering, fine arts, medicine, natural sciences, New College, nursing, and social and behavorial sciences. The university offers 84 baccalaureate degree programs. Twenty-five of these are in education, 12 in the social sciences, 7 in foreign languages, 6 in business administration, and 9 in letters. Sixty-five master's programs are available — 25 in education, 11 in social sciences, 10 in letters and foreign language, and 4 in business administration. At the doctoral level, nine programs are available: biological sciences, education, engineering, medical sciences, English, mathematics, chemistry, and psychology; one additional cooperative doctoral program in oceanography is available through an arrangement with Florida State University.

Within these programs are a number of nontraditional offerings, some of which contribute to the urban nature of the university. For example, television and radio are used to offer coursework through USF's Open University. A Bachelor of Independent Studies program serves other adult learners. New College, at the Sarasota campus, continues its tradition as an innovative liberal arts campus. Further, special service centers, such as the Management Institute of the College of Business Administration, seek to assist the business community with management consulting, trend data, and special seminars.

Business fields attract more undergraduate students (26 percent) than do other majors at USF. Education is the second most frequently declared major (15 percent), followed by engineering sciences. Among master's programs, education claims a third of the majors, and 12 percent are in business programs. Psychology enrolls one in three doctoral students at USF, education one in four, and biological sciences and English each claim about 10 percent.

USF awarded 3,775 bachelor's degrees in 1977-78; education and business each awarded over 800. Of the 851 master's degrees, 456 were in education; business was a distant second wtih 63. At both the bachelor's and master's levels, most areas of the institution were well represented among degrees awarded. Twelve of the 28 doctorates awarded in that year were in psychology, while four were in biological sciences. The university granted 61 medical degrees.

The Ph.D. program in psychology is perhaps the strongest graduate offering at the university. Three doctoral degree tracks are available: experimental, industrial/organizational, and clinical/community. The industrial/organizational program is involved with local business, industry, and government through research and consultation. The clinical/community program works closely with local community health centers, and pre-school and daycare centers. The department head is convinced these important relationships with the community would not be as readily available, or as easily arranged, if the campus were not in a metropolitan area.

There are 34 full-time faculty positions in the department; three are assigned to the St. Petersburg campus. In addition, about 15 adjunct faculty are involved in the programs, including those who supervise clinical experiences. The Ph.D. program receives applications from about 500 to 600 students, yet admits only 30 to 35 new students per year. At any one

time there are about 125 doctoral students at various stages of the program. The students in this program represent a wide geographic area, including some foreign countries, but significant numbers of local students are among those enrolled. Most psychology doctoral students are enrolled full-time. In recent years the department has awarded 12 to 15 doctorates annually, but the department chairman expects that by 1982 the degree output will level off at about 25.

The College of Business Administration offers four master's degree programs; the M.B.A. is the largest. Currently there are 145 full-time students in this program; about 230 students are part-time students. The program attracts a few non-Florida students. Four courses in the M.B.A. program are offered at the St. Petersburg campus. At the Sarasota and Fort Myers campuses, two courses are offered, made possible by faculty members who commute to those locations one day each week. Other degree programs include the master of accountancy, a program offered mainly in the evening; a master of arts in economics; and the master of science in management. Students in the management program are a select group — only about 30 are admitted annually. Most of these students are currently employed in management positions, as applicants directly from undergraduate studies are not accepted.

USF offers doctoral study in oceanography and marine science through collaboration with faculty in a similar program at Florida State University. The location of USF makes it a natural location for a program of this type, with a campus in St. Petersburg adjacent to a deep-water port. Officials at USF have expressed interest in being the primary site for this program. It is among the five areas identified for special funding and emphasis in the next few years.

At one time the departments and degrees from the College of Engineering were assigned unusual labels and titles so as to appear less duplicative and competitive with other existing engineering programs in Florida. Subsequently, there was confusion as to what the degree designations actually meant in terms of traditional fields within engineering, and complaints from students and industrial representatives finally grew to the point that more conventional names were substituted.

Attitudes and Aspirations

Among the universities visited for this study, the people interviewed at the University of South Florida seemed to be more confident about an urban university and its urban functions. The role-and-scope document argues that an urban focus is too restrictive for USF's research efforts. Much of what the institution is about relates to being a "comprehensive university located in and identified with the problems, interests, and concerns of numerous 'metropolitan' areas." Thus, the university views the needs of "metropolitan areas" as more encompassing than those of "urban centers" and wishes to be assigned this broader mission. The term "metromission" is used by USF to connote this distinction.

One department head asserted that being a metropolitan university doesn't mean that activities are bound only to the confines of the city, the county, or even the 15-county service area, nor are they bound in a substantive sense to a certain locale. For example, the problems of migrants, health, education, and aging were mentioned as appropriate to a metropolitan university, even though these are not necessarily metropolitan problems. This individual felt that for a university to be "comprehensive," graduate programs are necessary

and faculty need to be involved in research activities. An associate dean seemed to be concurring when he said that, to be comprehensive, doctoral studies will have to be available in not just a few but in many departments.

When discussions moved to the matter of overlapping functions among the state's universities and the issue of program duplication, most felt that "unnecessary duplication" implies that some duplication may be necessary. Some state that, in general, if there can only be one program in a certain field, it will be most appropriately located at an urban campus. Others expressed that too often there is an inclination to talk about urban university programs only as they relate to occupational roles. For example, the business community talks about the importance of business administration and accounting; the cultural organizations of the city are provided artists from fine arts programs. While an urban or metropolitan university can be a logical source for trained manpower in social work, criminal justice, and other human services, it should be allowed to develop a broad combination of advanced programs in many areas of study, in the opinion of many faculty.

Senior administrators are advocates of their institution becoming increasingly stronger in coming years. They are convinced that if the higher educational enterprise is to survive, it had best offer what people want where they are located. The president felt that the state of Florida cannot and should not pay for more than two comprehensive research institutions. But he further submitted that the state should support USF programs at any level appropriate to its mission. The president also contrasted the relationships between "town and gown" in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. He stated that unlike an institution in a smaller university town where values can be largely determined by the academic community, a university in an urban center university must be more sensitive to its environs and more responsive to local needs. For example, if the business community wants its employees to have access to courses that will keep them abreast of the latest developments and techniques, the university should be quick to respond. Another senior official indicated that the urban institution can do some things better than those not located in metropolitan areas. Certain undertakings should not be continued at the flagship institution simply because they have had these programs in the past, this official would say, adding that the urban university is the institution of tomorrow and the flagship concept is an anachronism.

The acting director of graduate studies offered numerous indicators that the institution is showing more interest in graduate studies: the division of graduate studies has been relabeled a graduate school; criteria have been established to designate certain faculty members as graduate faculty throughout the university; and most new programs requests are at the graduate level. Further evidence of USF's graduate interests are found in the 1979 role-and-scope mission statement where USF lists several degree programs for exploration. Formal proposals to initiate these programs may result, if need can be determined and justified. Some of the bachelor's level programs currently of interest to USF are architectural design, fine arts (B.F.A.), geochemistry, liberal arts, and music (B.M.). At the master's level, USF has indicated an interest in programs in architecture, art history, arts management, fine arts (M.F.A. in performance), geochemistry, industrial chemistry, liberal arts, medical science, public health, social work, statistics, and urban planning. In addition, the university may also seek new doctoral offerings in applied anthropology, business administration, communicology, philosophy (with the University of Florida), speech communication (with Florida State University), and statistics.

In addition to these programs of interest, the university has made plans for emphasizing its programs in marine sciences, human services, fine arts, New College, and certain areas in the College of Medicine.

The list above includes two doctoral programs which would be offered in cooperation with other state universities, where these programs already exist. Because the Regents staff has been using cooperative doctoral programs as alternatives to establishing new, free-standing doctorates, campus attitudes about these arrangements are important. One senior administrator and a number of faculty expressed reservations about the approach, preferring a joint or coequal position in providing programs where freestanding ones could not be established. The joint program would allow the strengths of both institutions to advance. Cooperative options have been avoided because students from Tampa could not relocate for residency requirements at other institutions. Other difficulties include the requirement that participating faculty be approved and certified by the originating institution.

USF has stated as a goal the exploration and development of additional graduate and research programs "that facilitate serving regional, state, national, and/or international needs." The university readily points to examples of its responsiveness to local needs for academic programs. A half dozen electronics firms in St. Petersburg sought help from the University of South Florida in providing advanced training and attracting high technology employees. Competition is brisk for professionals in those industries, and the attraction of high salaries is often second to peripheral advantages, such as the opportunity for pursuing master's degrees in electrical or electronics engineering. These companies asked the university to offer such a degree program, and the university obliged by gaining approval to extend an existing program to a site near these industries. One significant part of this arrangement is that the companies are paying for the rented space so these courses can be offered conveniently.

Relocation of academic programs between institutions is more often mentioned as a remedy for serving people without expending additional dollars. USF has been involved in two instances where programs were moved — one to the campus and another from USF. In the early 1970s, an engineering science school was closed at FSU and transferred to USF. In more recent years, the USF bachelor's and master's programs in astronomy were transferred to the University of Florida. The president of USF intimated that these examples of program relocation may have established a two-way street in program relocation. That is, the astronomy program was viewed as more appropriate at the Gainesville campus, and there will be other programs for which the president will seek to generate support in relocating at the urban campus.

In general it may be said that Florida urban legislators, and in particular some from the Tampa area, support an expanded role for USF in its locale and in the state. Although the legislature is in some ways less supportive and more critical of higher education than in earlier years, officials at USF do not expect legislators to undermine the universities to the point that the campus role in economic development is jeopardized. This university is the most comprehensive of Florida's newer institutions, and is seen as the state's sleeping giant, now awakened. USF officials insist that, early in its history, compelling needs and decisive pressures dictated that it offer graduate programs, engage in research, and offer service in the true tradition of great American universities. These needs and pressures are continually being monitored by those inside and around the university to make a case for further growth.

Kentucky

In Kentucky, there are presently eight public senior and graduate universities, and a community college system of 13 institutions. These campuses enrolled over 110,000 students in the fall of 1979, and the combined operating budgets for 1979-80 totaled some $585 million. Since 1934, public institutions in Kentucky have been coordinated by the Council on Higher Education. This state agency is authorized to review the budget requests of each university and prepare a consolidated budget for higher education for presentation to the governor. The Council also is empowered to approve new degree programs and terminate existing academic programs on the public campuses. Each of the public senior campuses is governed by a Board of Trustees or Board of Regents.

Until recently, the Council membership included 10 lay appointees and the presidents of the eight public universities as ex-officio, non-voting members. In July of 1980, the governor, by executive order, restructured the Council to include 15 appointed voting members — one each from the commonwealth's seven congressional districts, and eight at-large — plus the state school superintendent as a non-voting member. The campus presidents no longer serve as members of the Council, but comprise an advisory board to the Council.

The location of the commonwealth's campuses shows some consideration for accessibility. The University of Kentucky is centrally located in Lexington, the state's second most populous city (1979 census estimate: 190,142). Seven other senior colleges are located in

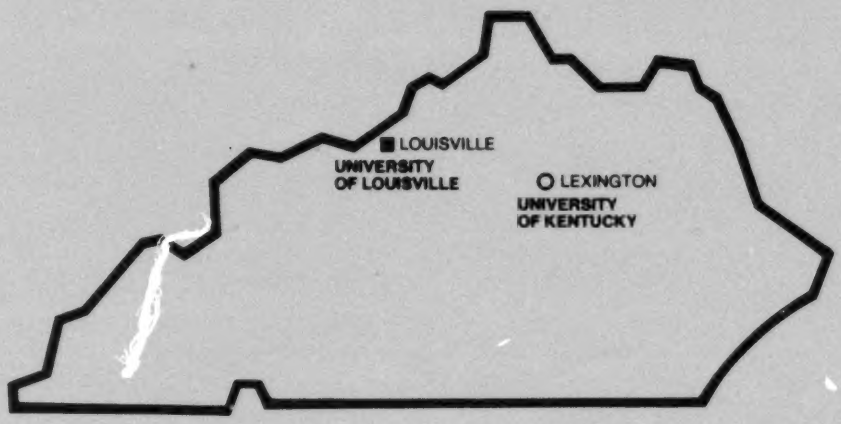

FIGURE 2
URBAN AND COMPREHENSIVE UNIVERSITIES IN KENTUCKY

various sectors of the state, including an historically black university and a campus in northern Kentucky which serves suburban Cincinnati. Not until a decade ago did the state have a senior campus in its largest concentration of population, Louisville. For well over a century the University of Louisville (U of L), a municipal university, had provided well-established programs in the arts and sciences, medicine, dentistry, and law. When the state took responsibility for the campus in 1970, it inherited an array of graduate programs and professional schools, many of which enjoyed distinction and prestige. Indeed, some observers emphasize the good reputation of U of L as a significant factor in the state's willingness to adopt the institution in a time of the university's financial crisis. The medical and dental colleges had long provided clinical services to urban clients, and the state's leaders always had included alumni of the U of L law school.

However, it soon was obvious that U of L offered many programs which were also available at the University of Kentucky. The inclusion of Louisville in the public sector was viewed negatively by UK loyalists, and the additional drain on the state purse was not a welcome prospect. Among the proposals discussed for incorporating the Louisville campus into the state system was one which would make it a branch campus of the Lexington-based land-grant university. Louisville supporters made it clear they were not favorably disposed to such a proposition, unless both of the campuses were to change their names. Kentucky Commonwealth University was one name proposed, patterned after the then-recent example in Richmond, Virginia, where a state medical college merged with another public campus to form Virginia Commonwealth University. Ultimately, the two Kentucky institutions remained separate and retained their respective names, but it was clear that the matter of program duplication and jurisdiction would be a sensitive and recurrent issue.

Strong Mission Statements

Two years after the addition of U of L to the ranks of state universities, the legislature attempted to clarify the respective roles of UK and U of L. Statutes were modified, but did not especially contribute to a better understanding of the missions of these two institutions. In effect, the statutes say that UK has no limitations and U of L has no restrictions except as implied by the unlimited role of UK. To illustrate this equivocation, the statutes declare:

> The University of Kentucky shall be the principal state institution for the conduct of statewide research and statewide service programs and shall be the only institution authorized to expend state general fund appropriations on research and service programs of a statewide nature financed principally by state funds.
>
> The University of Louisville shall continue to be a principal university for the conduct of research and service programs without geographical limitation but subject to the implied limitation of [the above statute regarding the University of Kentucky].

In an effort to define more explicitly the scope of Kentucky campuses, the Council, after deliberation for several months, developed institutional mission statements for each senior university and the community college system. The advocates of U of L and UK were anxious that their respective institution's existing or future roles not be unduly restricted. The mission statements, adopted by the Council on January 19, 1977, were as follows:

University of Louisville

The University of Louisville shall be a major university located in the largest urban area and shall meet the educational, research, and service needs of its

metropolitan area with a broad range of programs at the baccalaureate and master's levels. The University of Louisville shall continue to offer those doctoral degree and postdoctoral programs related to the health sciences. The University of Louisville will continue to share with the University of Kentucky a statewide mission in medicine, dentistry, law, and urban affairs. However, the financial resources of the Commonwealth are limited. Kentucky cannot afford to develop two comprehensive programs at the doctoral level, currently and in the future. Therefore, at the doctoral level, the University of Louisville may offer a limited number of carefully selected programs which are not unnecessarily duplicative and which are relevant to the needs of its metropolitan service area. Doctoral programs not consistent with this statement shall be phased out as soon as practicable, with due regard to the interests of students already enrolled and to faculty and staff employed therein. In the health sciences, close coordination with the University of Kentucky must be maintained.

While it may be necessary for other institutions to offer certain programs therein, the specific responsibility to satisfy the broad range of undergraduate, master's, and special needs of the residents of the metropolitan service area of Louisville and Jefferson County rests with the University of Louisville. Careful articulation of academic programs at Jefferson Community College and the University of Louisville should be developed to enhance educational opportunities in the Louisville and Jefferson County metropolitan service area.

University of Kentucky

The University of Kentucky shall be the Commonwealth's only statewide institution. It shall serve as the principal graduate degree-granting university in the system and as the principal institution for statewide instruction, research, and service programs in all fields without geographical limitation.

By virtue of these responsibilities, the University shall serve as a residential institution and maintain a wide range of academic programs at the baccalaureate, master's, and doctoral degree levels, with professional programs as approved by the Council on Higher Education. Because of its designation as the principal research, service, and graduate institution, the University shall emphasize the development of its graduate, professional, research, and service programs. It is essential to the success of the entire system that the University shall exert maximum effort for cooperative doctoral programs with other universities in the Commonwealth and cooperate in applied research and service with other institutions. In the health sciences, close coordination with the University of Louisville must be maintained. This emphasis may require retrenchment of some programs and limitations on undergraduate enrollment at the Lexington campus.

A Competitive Atmosphere

Since U of L came into the public sector, representatives of UK have expressed concern about the fiscal consequences of supporting two comprehensive institutions. State support, expressed in terms of the percent of total appropriations going to higher education, has remained essentially at the same level before and after the state took over responsibility for Louisville. This relatively level funding commitment must now support two large institutions instead of one, and, it is argued, the effect on existing and potential quality of programs has been pronounced. Advocates of UK do not feel that a state of Kentucky's size and means is

capable of adequately supporting more than one major university. These feelings are likely to be further aggravated in times of fiscal austerity or reduction. Early in the 1980-81 fiscal year the governor responded to an anticipated revenue shortfall by requiring an eight percent rescission in previously authorized budgets.

State Council officials believe that the University of Louisville and its political constituency still harbor ambitions for the institution which might exceed the mission statement, but they think the administration of the university also understands the realities of program allocations statewide. The label "urban university" has been used by the Council as a matter of necessity and practicality in dealing with U of L, not to refer to geographic location as much as to the scope of graduate programs and the method in which they are delivered. Reportedly, the change from a traditional, relatively elite institution was difficult for many at U of L to accept initially. Council staff feel the institution now has acknowledged that many of its new opportunities for recognition will come from providing applied programs for nontraditional clientele.

Problems — past and continuing — which are pointed out by Council officials include (1) settling questions of role, (2) defining what an urban university is and what that means for programming and for funding, and (3) determining the proper balance between graduate and undergraduate programs in an urban institution.

In discussion with key legislators, most indicated the need to balance the aspirations of the two institutions, but this was not characterized as an all-consuming problem. Because diverse interest groups and supporters are involved, most expect there will always be some degree of competing allegiances, with the attendant political behavior. That reality notwithstanding, most legislators who were interviewed recognized that it would be unwise to have two universities unrestrained and uncoordinated in their offerings. Many commented that in addition to those doctoral and professional programs now available at the University of Louisville, the urban institution could likely justify additional advanced offerings in education, business, and health fields. Louisville legislative delegates view this as a modest expectation for a campus with a service area composed of a fourth of the state's residents. Some legislators explain their interpretation of the mission statements as not relegating anyone to second class, but rather to a different class. It is reasonable, they say, to provide support for U of L programs where not duplicative of UK, except in cases where justifiable.

The continuation of certain programs at U of L, for example, the Ph.D. in English, does not particularly concern legislators because they do not think that approval would have been granted for a new doctoral program in this discipline. It is seen as an example of "grandfathering in" of certain programs which existed at the time of state adoption of the institution, and before mission statements were developed. One legislator said the mission statement is a blueprint, intended more for future decisions than for current adjustments, and "the exception helps bring attention to the rule."

Legislators mentioned the political support for higher education that resulted from bringing the University of Louisville into the state system. Legislative matters involving the University of Louisville are among the few that the Louisville delegation can agree upon, said one senator. The state Council was favorably viewed by those legislators interviewed. In particular, the Council earned a good measure of respect and credibility with the legislature by developing the institutional mission statements and making an effort to use them as policy guides.

The University of Louisville

The city of Louisville, Jefferson County, Kentucky, is situated in the northwestern part of the state on the Ohio River. The river adds character as well as commerce to this town, which in 1970 employed 30.5 percent of its work force in manufacturing. The city has experienced a gradual outmigration in recent years; and between 1970 and 1977 the population declined 10.7 percent, to 322,870. However, two adjacent counties, which are part of the standard metropolitan statistical area, grew more than 43 percent during this same period. The five-county SMSA (including two Indiana counties) had an estimated population of 885,486 in 1977.

Louisville is the home of several colleges and universities, among them the University of Louisville, Jefferson Community College (part of the University of Kentucky System), Bellarmine College, Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, Louisville School of Art, Louisville Presbyterian Theological Seminary, Spalding College, Sullivan Junior College of Business, and Watterson College. The history of the University of Louisville begins in 1798, when the state legislature endowed five academies with public lands. Early in the 19th century, the new institution in Louisville, Jefferson Seminary, enrolled its first class. Soon thereafter the Louisville Medical Institute and the Louisville Collegiate Institute offered their first classes, in 1837 and 1838, respectively. Both enjoyed some form of financial support from the city, and the Collegiate Institute later inherited a portion of the Jefferson Seminary estate. In 1846, the institutes merged to form the University of Louisville, and added a law school. In 1910, the city of Louisville began regular financial allocations to the University, and the institution became a quasi-independent municipal college. Between 1915 and 1969, the University expanded to add a graduate school, a school of dentistry, an engineering school, and schools of music, social work, business, education, police administration, and open-admissions University College. In 1970, after several years of debilitating financial woes, this oldest of the nation's municipal universities became state-supported.

Upon seeing the University of Louisville for the first time, a visitor immediately notices the contrasts of old and new architecture which give testimony to the two major segments of the institution's history. This academic community is housed in distinguished looking ivy-clad buildings of classical style nestled among several newer ones of striking modern design. The main campus is located in the southern part of the city, about two miles from downtown. A health sciences campus is located downtown in a complex which includes several new facilities constructed since 1970.

The university maintained stable and gradually increasing enrollments during the 1960s, reaching more than 9,000 in the last year of that decade. After converting to state control in 1970, tuition and fees were reduced by more than half to levels on par with other public institutions, making the university more accessible and attractive to Kentuckians. Enrollments advanced accordingly: from 1969 to 1979 total headcount more than doubled to 19,238. During this same period, headcount enrollment grew 43 percent at the University of Kentucky's main campus, where the 1979 total was 23,058.

A Local Clientele

Additional data suggest that U of L's enrollment growth has been derived largely from attracting greater numbers of local residents. Although enrollment figures for UK show steadily growing numbers of students from Jefferson County since 1969, the increases in enrollment at U of L by residents of this county have been slightly greater. At the same time,

Louisville enrolls very small numbers of students from UK's home county (Fayette). One other statistic shows U of L to have drawn most of its increased enrollment from local clientele: non-resident enrollment dropped from 14.3 percent in 1969 to 8.2 in 1979.

A closer examination of the geographic origins of fall 1979 enrollments shows that 92 percent of the total enrollment comes from within the state, and although 99 of the Commonwealth's 120 counties are represented, 89 percent of the Kentuckians at U of L are from Jefferson County. Only five counties send 100 or more students to U of L. The University of Kentucky has students from every Kentucky county, and draws over 100 students from each of 33 counties.

U of L enrolls almost three-fourths of its students at the undergraduate level, 18 percent are graduate students, and some seven percent are in professional programs. These figures are comparable to those at the University of Kentucky. However, 43 percent of U of L's student body is enrolled on a part-time basis, twice the proportion of UK. While most of the part-timers are undergraduates, the ratio at the graduate level is more pronounced, where three out of four students are part-time. There are more black students at U of L than at any campus in the state; 1,624 blacks made up 8.4 percent of the Louisville student body in 1979. The institution ranks second in total credit hour production among the state's campuses, yet is fifth in rank in terms of total off-campus credit hours.

The University of Louisville offers 64 bachelor's degree programs, 65 master's programs, 11 programs at the doctoral level, and 3 first professional programs (law, medicine, and dentistry). In addition, like other senior institutions in Kentucky, Louisville is authorized to offer community college level programs. Although this likely presents coordination and duplication problems with Jefferson Community College, U of L offers some 26 associate degree programs.

Among undergraduates at the University of Louisville, business is the most popular area of study, with 20 percent of the enrollment. The next most prevalent majors, each with about 6 to 7 percent, are education, engineering, health professions, and social sciences, followed by music and art (4 percent each). At the graduate level, education leads all headcount enrollment with 38 percent of the total; community services (including social work) is next with 16 percent, followed by business (12 percent) and engineering (8 percent). The combined enrollment in first professional programs at U of L exceeds the total of first professional enrollment at UK (1,393 and 1,202, respectively).

The U of L report of degrees awarded for 1978-79 also shows strong predominance by business and education. Twenty-nine percent of the 1,376 bachelor's degrees were in business fields. Eleven percent of the undergraduate degrees were in education, followed closely by engineering, social sciences, and humanities. At the master's level, nearly half (44 percent) of the 903 graduates earned degrees in education. Health professions and engineering followed next in order, with 13 and 10 percent, respectively. Business represented seven percent of the master's degrees awarded. Of the 35 doctoral degrees, 16 were in the biological sciences and 11 were in psychology. Some 381 professional degrees were awarded, with 159 in law, 139 in medicine, and 83 in dentistry.

In 1979, the University of Louisville offered on its academic campus doctoral study in the following areas: biology, chemistry, English, clinical psychology, experimental psychology, and music history. The music history doctorate is offered as a cooperative program with UK; the degree is granted by UK. In addition, the downtown medical campus provides doctoral programs in anatomy, biochemistry, microbiology/immunology, pharmacology/

toxicology, and physiology/biophysics. Doctoral programs which were terminated or phased out by the State Council on Higher Education after the university became state-supported include interdisciplinary studies, physics, and chemical engineering. The chemical engineering program will likely be consolidated with a similar program at UK.

The Ph.D. in English at Louisville was another program considered for termination by the Council. In 1979, after lengthy debate on the appropriateness of the program in light of the institutional mission statements, the Council allowed the program to continue with some modification. Rather than literary studies and critical analysis, the emphasis now is on rhetoric and composition, and is intended mainly for prospective teachers.

The University of Louisville employs over 1,000 full-time faculty, and retains some 500 additional faculty on a part-time or adjunct basis. Many of the persons interviewed during a visit to the campus described the faculty as a mixture of old and new, or pre-1970 and post-1970. In many ways, the university was an upper middle-class, elitist institution which behaved more like an independent college than its municipal ties might suggest. Although some programs, such as those in U of L's University College (which will be discussed later), have long provided opportunities for nontraditional students, the campus acquired over time a reputation of selective admissions. Most of those interviewed felt the faculty at U of L were not unlike those at other comprehensive campuses, urban or non-urban, and the interests of faculty were not inappropriate for the type of student at U of L. At least one dean and a department head indicated that they were able to hire new faculty from excellent sources, that is, from strong graduate programs at reputable institutions. None of the faculty in the College of Arts and Sciences teach solely at the graduate level, but research activity is among the criteria for promotion and tenure. Only a small percentage, it was reported, become bored and discouraged in teaching underprepared students and "burn out." One person described the faculty as being evenly distributed among three groups: pre-1970 faculty who are still uncomfortable with the new mission of the institution; newer, more aggressive faculty interested in change and social responsibility; and hybrids of the two. It was pointed out that these faculty orientations are taken into account in making teaching assignments in some departments, and that faculty from the "old school" are seldom given introductory classes because of the diversity of student ability. But many felt that faculty generally have an innovative spirit and are committed to making courses available to students when and where needed.

Urban Roots

In a report to the U of L Board of Trustees in 1978, a senior academic officer made clear that the university had been an urban university long before becoming a state university. Louisville had often been involved over the years in various associations and consortia of municipal and urban universities. However, the university recognized that until lower tuition levels were established as a result of state support, it was not fully able to serve large numbers of urban residents.

Many with whom we spoke made very clear their conviction that U of L must first be a university and second, an urban university. One dean expressed concern over a widespread myth that a strong traditional liberal arts program is not appropriate for an institution which embraces an urban mission, and was emphatic that the university was obligated to provide as "elegant" an education as possible to its students. At the same time, the dean of arts and sciences said the largest component of the college's operating budget was for remedial education — to teach communication and computational skills. It was felt that many faculty view this remedial function as an unfortunate necessity, but acknowledge its importance.

Perhaps the division of the university which most directly reflects an urban orientation in terms of serving nontraditional students is University College. This unit evolved from the original evening division of the institution, and has offered courses for working adults since 1928. In 1976, it became more autonomous as a unit of the institution and faculty were assigned full time to this division, whereas in earlier years faculty were part-time or had joint appointments with other departments. University College provides instruction in basic skills through its developmental education center. It also offers three degree programs — communications, interior design, and liberal studies. The bachelor of liberal studies (BLS) degree most nearly typifies the college's urban function. The associate dean indicated that the U of L liberal studies program would not likely have its appeal or success were it not in an urban setting. It offers such a flexible program of studies that each student represents a different degree program. Students in the BLS program are mostly re-enrolled stop-outs who are 22 years or older. The students are not restricted to a major in a particular discipline; instead, an interdisciplinary program is constructed. A maximum of 12 hours can be gained in technical or applied areas. There are about 200 students currently enrolled in the BLS degree program.

In addition to its attention to the needs of placebound and underprepared students, U of L sees itself as a local repository for expertise that can be used in addressing local urban problems. Many of those interviewed expressed a conviction that the prospect for survival of society is directly related to the understanding and solution of urban problems. Contemporary problems of race relations, distribution of economic resources, health care delivery, and environmental concerns were mentioned as pressing issues for the survival of society in an urban area. Most of those with whom we talked felt there was a high level of interest among faculty in the urban condition. Many faculty have traditional training but are rechanneling their professional interests into more contemporary specialties with relevance to the locale. For example, a biologist addresses environmental issues, a philosopher focuses on ethics, a physicist works on applied industrial matters, a mathematician emphasizes applied analytical methods, and a sociologist focuses on juvenile delinquency, housing, and public policy issues.

The University of Kentucky has some 50 doctoral programs while U of L has about a dozen. There are official indications of interest at Louisville for several new programs in the near future, including six at the doctoral level: business administration, engineering, musical arts, social work, systems science, and urban affairs. At the master's level, U of L is seeking progams in administrative science, systems science, theatre arts and speech, and urban affairs. New program proposals at the bachelor's level are dance, dance education, data processing technology, electrical engineering technology, engineering (evening program), personnel administration and industrial relations, and social work.

This list represents programs which build on existing strengths within the institution or relate to urban needs. But UK is not apt to wait idly while U of L establishes itself as the state's primary university for serving urban educational needs. UK is quick to point out its location in a moderate-size city and a service mission which is statewide, including both nonurban and urban areas. In fact, in making application for the urban affairs division of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges, UK cited some 14 programs and activities related to urban affairs, including those offered at Jefferson Community College, which as a public community college is under UK control.

State officials have been critical of U of L's efforts to acquire additional advanced programs, asserting that as an urban university, Louisville should be more attentive to the basic educational needs of the community in general. For example, State Council staff perceive a high attrition rate among U of L undergraduates and cite this as evidence that more attention should be directed to improving services to baccalaureate students. U of L administrators defend their ambitions to improve and expand graduate education by virtue of being the only public institution in Louisville responsible for providing graduate and professional training. Furthermore, the university disagrees with those who would characterize the school as one with a high rate of attrition or non-completion of degree programs. These officials claim there are other campuses in Louisville which provide undergraduate education,and U of L, as an urban university, has an important role in providing instruction to people who are not necessarily pursuing degrees. Among them are those wanting a particular course or courses relevant to their jobs, and others who are seeking an intellectual outlet.

For at least a decade there has been an adversary relationship between U of L and UK, although usually not to the extent of mutual debilitation. Senior officials at UK continue to assert that the state's taking responsibility for a pre-existing university brought with it too many programs which the state cannot adequately support and which would not likely have been initiated if the state had established a new campus in Louisville. Advocates of Louisville say the urban location of their campus is stronger justification of certain programs, and it is the existence and initiation of programs in Lexington that should be questioned on the basis of economic and educational logic. The U of L leadership takes exception with criticisms of duplication by pointing out that many of their programs came into being before those of a comparable nature at UK. But U of L will continue to stake its future on its location and involvement in its supporting community. As mentioned earlier, legislative support has begun to coalesce and many sense that U of L will be viewed more favorably in coming years.

The president's Annual Report of the University of Louisville 1977, the year the State Council established the institutional mission statements, is entitled "What is an Urban University?" The document embraces this special designation and states:

> The next few years will provide challenge as we struggle to redefine our role as an urban university in light of our new mission statement and the changing needs of our community. Most important will be continued recognition that a university in a city is both an urban institution and a university. As an urban institution it cannot neglect its local community. But as a university it should always participate in an international community of scholars dedicated to serving the needs and aspirations of humanity. The two roles are linked, and in serving the larger community a university can also serve its local community.

The president reflected this posture on other occasions by stating that not all doctoral programs at U of L should be of an applied nature; that to be without numerous doctoral programs in an urban area is to deny access to many and to deny the advantages of research and service to the urban community; and that no area of advanced study, save perhaps agriculture, is inappropriate for an urban institution to offer. Although the university now has a new president, indications of general sentiment suggest that this attitude will continue to be evident in the University of Louisville's program requests, and that gradually a broader array of offerings will be established.

Virginia*

The Commonwealth of Virginia has chartered or statutorily established 71 degree-granting institutions, including 39 state-supported colleges and universities, 31 independent non-profit institutions, and one proprietary college. Among the state-supported institutions, six offer doctoral programs, nine more conduct four-year programs, and 24 are two-year colleges. Three public universities are located in the state's urban areas: George Mason University (GMU) in northern Virginia near Washington, D.C.; Old Dominion University (ODU) in the southeastern Tidewater area near Norfolk; and Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU) in the capital city of Richmond. The state's two comprehensive universities, the University of Virginia (UVA) and Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (VPI), are located in the less-densely populated central and southwestern parts of Virginia.

With a new commitment to improving educational access, Virginia began developing a community college system in the mid-1960s. By 1978, the community colleges enrolled 38 percent of the students in Virginia's public and independent colleges. From 1970 to 1978, enrollments rose 229 percent at the community colleges and 54 percent at four-year institutions. Among senior institutions, the doctoral universities grew slightly faster than the non-doctoral institutions. Urban and non-urban doctoral universities grew at about the same rate.

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* Dr. Harlan T. Cooper provided valuable assistance in the conduct of this study, and prepared initial drafts of case studies on Virginia, George Mason University, Old Dominion University, and Virginia Commonwealth University.

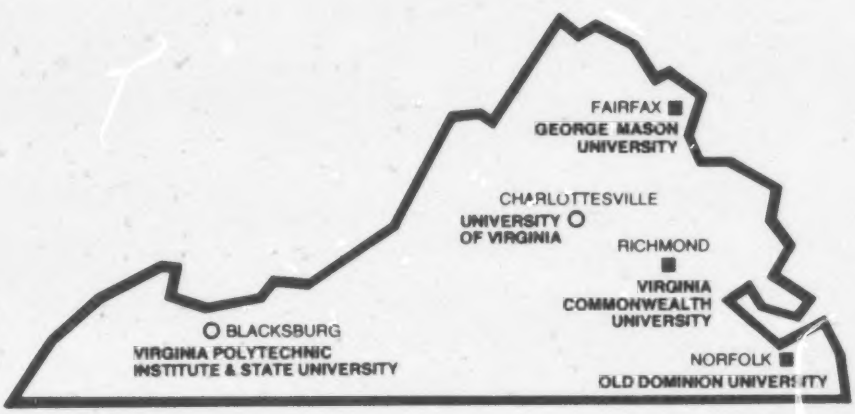

FIGURE 3
URBAN AND COMPREHENSIVE UNIVERSITIES IN VIRGINIA

The growth rate in state funding for higher education over recent years has exceeded the growth rate of total state appropriations. Between the 1968-70 and 1978-80 biennia, total state appropriations grew 146 percent, and total appropriations for higher education (excluding medical school hospitals, extension, and continuing education) grew 214 percent. The state appropriates funds for higher education operating expenses from the state general fund and from special funds, derived primarily from tuition and fees. General fund appropriations for higher education in 1978-80 represented 15.5 percent of total state general fund appropriations. Fifty-six percent of total education appropriations in the 1978-80 biennium came from the general fund; 44 percent came from special funds.

The State Council of Higher Education for Virginia, the state's statutory coordinating agency for higher education, consists of 11 appointed lay members. A 1974 statute, which clarified and expanded the Council's role, calls for this agency to attend to the following responsibilities:

- † Develop a state master plan and a biennial update;
- † Approve changes in institutional missions;
- † Approve new degree programs;
- † Terminate non-productive degree programs;
- † Involve private and proprietary institutions in state planning;
- † Coordinate continuing education statewide;
- † Authorize degree conferral by private institutions within Virginia and operations by out-of-state institutions within Virginia;
- † Administer state student financial aid programs;
- † Review institutional budgets and make recommendations to the governor and General Assembly;
- † Approve institutions' enrollment projections for purposes of determining operating budgets and longer-term capital outlay plans.

Each of the state colleges and universities is governed by its respective board of visitors, but decisions made by the Council of Higher Education directly affect the growth and character of the mission, budget, and programs at the state institutions. Campuses cannot begin or maintain programs without approval. General criteria for program regulatory decisions are included in the state master plan. Through the planning process the Council works with institutions to produce mission statements which link programs, enrollments, and other future plans to statewide goals and limitations.

A Statewide Plan

A master plan, "The Virginia Plan for Higher Education," was first published in 1967. The Council of Higher Education conducts planning on a continuing basis, and updated the Virginia plan in 1974, 1977, and 1979. The most recent plan consists of two volumes. The first volume presents statewide statistical data describing higher education, the Council's position on six prominent issues, and narrative mission statements for each institution. The second volume presents statistical profiles of the institutions. The six issues discussed in the first volume are: enrollment, the role of Virginia's urban universities, teacher education, higher education finance, support for research, and off-campus credit courses and programs.

Several themes emerge from the 1979 plan. In general, higher education in Virginia is described as basically healthy. Progress has been made toward the three goals identified in the 1974 plan: accessibility, excellence, and accountability. Access has been achieved:

". . . every Virginian who wishes to participate in higher education has access to a state-supported or independent college or university." The plan claims that the value of higher education is increasing and argues that the major problems of society warrant more, rather than less, support for higher education.

In looking ahead, the plan claims the 1980s will differ significantly from the earlier, expansionary years. Enrollments statewide will stabilize and significant shifts in headcount and FTE distribution could occur in this decade. State expenditures are likely to stabilize also, given the competition from other public services for available funds and increasing public demands for government fiscal containment. The 1979 plan urges creative self-restraint by the higher education community, but goes on to assert that stable enrollments and tighter finances must not be confused with stagnation; imagination and creativity do not depend upon increasing enrollment or financial growth. Yet these conditions of restraint are particularly troublesome because they coincide with pressures for expanded services, especially in the more populous sections of the state.

In general, Virginia does not expect declines in headcount enrollments, but a reduction and redistribution of FTEs may be seen in the near future. Analysis by State Council staff has shown that some 12,000 more Virginians leave the state to attend college than the number of out-of-state students entering to attend Virginia colleges. This posture on the migration ledger as an exporter of students, combined with declining pools of high school graduates and 18 to 21 year-olds, gives reason for concern.

Population trends indicate Virginia can expect continued population growth, owing to migration into the state rather than an increased birthrate. At the same time, the number of 22 to 34 year-olds will increase considerably. The state's urban areas are expected to claim most of these population gains, thus colleges in these metropolitan locations are in a position to take advantage of potential enrollments. It is anticipated that these older city dwellers, although not especially mobile because of job or family, will be inclined to enroll in educational programs which will aid them in career advancement. But these enrollments are not expected to offset declining numbers of traditional, college-aged students, and the older enrollees will most likely attend on a part-time basis. These concurrent shifts in enrollment patterns — fewer 18 to 21 year-olds and more older, part-time students — may lead to pronounced shifts in enrollment patterns in the state and require reassessment of institutional mission for many campuses.

In its master plan, the Council forecast headcount growth rates between 1978 and 1989 for the two-year colleges as 27 percent, 33 percent for urban universities, and for the non-urban universities, 3 percent. The slow growth expected for the non-urban comprehensive universities is due to a decision by these institutions to stabilize enrollments by restricting admissions. On balance, however, the urban universities are expected to grow faster than the community colleges as well as other four-year institutions. The current pattern of full-time and part-time enrollments differs between the urban universities and non-urban comprehensive universities. At the state's non-urban comprehensive institutions 75 percent of students are enrolled full-time, while at the urban universities an average 53 percent of students are full-time.

Discussing higher education finance, the plan states "higher education priorities must be assigned on the basis of what is good for Virginia as a whole, and the interests and aspirations of the several colleges and universities must be more carefully coordinated than ever before." Institutional budget cuts based on enrollment declines are extremely difficult to absorb, and the Council has suggested that future budget calculations include fixed costs, such

as basic administration costs and "a minimum core of faculty regardless of the number of students enrolled." Lag times for implementing reductions have also been considered. Decisions about factors such as the number of faculty to be protected by a "minimum core" concept would expand the controls of the coordinating council.

The Council, in its 1974 plan for higher education, identified three public institutions — GMU, ODU, and VCU — as the state's "focal" universities for higher education in Virginia's urban areas. The discussion of urban university roles in the 1979 Virginia plan matches the concerns of this SREB study. This most recent state plan explains that the significance of institutions located in densely populated areas was not fully appreciated in the 1960s or early 1970s. Educators and legislators did not anticipate the urban institutions' rapid growth, breadth of academic degree programs, or strong public support. In particular, the question of how much graduate education the urban universities should offer was overlooked. Today a major issue facing higher education in Virginia is that of defining the mission of these focal urban universities in the system. The most crucial component of the urban university mission warranting careful consideration and planning now is graduate and professional education.

The Council has taken a position that sufficient numbers of doctoral programs now exist in the traditional arts and sciences to serve the needs of society, and the three urban institutions should not offer more. Virginia's state institutions currently offer more than 130 doctoral degree programs; about half of them have been established in the past 12 years. These programs have not, for the most part, acquired national reputations. Some advanced degree programs are viewed by the Council as especially suited to the missions of urban universities, for example, public and business administration, social work, education, and criminal justice. The State Council believes that the three urban institutions designated as "focal institutions" in the 1974 plan should retain that designation, but should develop different kinds of strengths and also cooperate with one another to distribute opportunities throughout all urban areas.

The plan also indicates that the comprehensive universities — the University of Virginia and Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University — should offer programs in the urban areas only when similar opportunities cannot be provided by the urban universities, and should in those instances provide only highly specialized programs which have costs too high to warrant duplication, or those for which there is a low or short-term demand.

The number of available graduate programs, statewide, is expected to grow significantly during the 1980s, and much of this growth is likely to be conspicuous in the development of new programs at the urban universities. Most doctorates are currently earned at the non-urban universities, particularly the University of Virginia, but most of the recent doctoral program proposals originate with the urban universities, particularly George Mason University.

The thought expressed by the Council is that, in urban areas, Virginia needs institutions which specifically serve urban needs. In northern Virginia, for example, there are special needs for services from George Mason University. However, this does not imply that the area requires another major, comprehensive university like George Washington University in the District of Columbia. Each urban institution has special strengths. Virginia Commonwealth, for example, is strong in the arts and in health sciences; George Mason, in public administration and management; and Old Dominion, in marine science, engineering, and other applied sciences.

The State Council uses its authority to encourage institutional responsiveness to changing needs for manpower. The Council chose not to approve a requested additional, duplicative Doctor of Education degree program, encouraging the institution to develop instead a program for human service administrators in urban areas. Another important area of program development is interinstitutional cooperation. The legislature called for a 1980 study of possible institutional cooperation in providing engineering programs in urban areas. The study looked for ways the three urban universities could collaborate in using their laboratories and the physical resources of surrounding industry to provide programs in computer science, engineering sciences, and related fields. The colleges could use existing facilities and avoid the need for new capital expenditures. Such cooperation is viewed by some as preferable to statewide, off-campus activities conducted by the University of Virginia and VPI. Those off-campus activities require expenditures for faculty travel which might be avoided by using faculty from local institutions.

By law the Council has responsibility to approve changes in institutional mission statements. This requires a determination of what a mission is and when it should be changed. Council staff describe the approach to developing mission statements in pragmatic terms: "A college or university is what it does." This is interpreted to mean that mission statements should focus on what institutions actually do rather than on what institutions hope to become.

The 1979 state plan does refer to institutional "aspirations," pointing out that institutions strive to become larger, more comprehensive, more selective of qualified students and faculty, and so on. Such aspirations are viewed by some as unrealistic under conditions of limited resources and enrollment potential. Nevertheless, aspirations are essential to institutional vitality. Clear channels and opportunities are needed for academic aspirations under conditions of financial restraint. Although the urban institutions have shown evidence of ambitions for new programs, they have for the most part made progress in a manner consistent with the Virginia plan. The presidents of the three urban institutions now meet periodically to identify and articulate common interests and opportunities. The 1979 plan as a whole is informative and provocative. The master plan is an important mechanism for exhibiting this control and for announcing the criteria which the Council will apply to circumstances requiring its judgment. The Council of Higher Education regulates by imposing policy parameters, channeling initiatives and containing potential excesses.

Views from Campus and Capitol

Officials at the state's two comprehensive universities are not especially anxious about the continued growth of the urban universities. Both of these campuses have established self-imposed enrollment limits, which have been met even with selective admissions policies. The primary concern seems to be one of financial resources being shared by a larger education community. For many years, the comprehensive institutions operated branch campuses and extension centers to offer continuing education courses and selected degree programs. Now that the urban universities have been established — elevated to freestanding institutions from their origins as branch campuses — the non-urban schools have significantly reduced their activities in extension education. Whereas the range of off-campus programs was once quite broad, continuing education now predominantly serves teachers and offers "academic credit" and continuing education credits instead of degree credits. A few other courses are tailored to professional groups. In addition to the effects of the urban institutions on the extension centers of UVA and VPI, two other impacts on the comprehensive campuses should be mentioned. First, there has been a corresponding reemphasis of on-campus programs, and second, growth of programs at the comprehensive schools draws from existing academic resources rather than creating new faculties and facilities.

Assuming that the opinions of legislators interviewed for this study are representative, Virginia legislators tend to expect the urban universities to have different missions from the non-urban, comprehensive universities. They view the urban universities as relatively "non-traditional," having an educational environment which is more loosely structured by providing, for example, flexible coursework schedules. The opinion is that the urban institutions should provide continuing education to working people who need to gain new skills, new credentials, or current knowledge. They rely more heavily on adjunct faculty and make different kinds of demands on traditional faculty. Some legislators consider these characteristics to be the key to the future in higher education, and they expect the urban institutions to garner the large part of new student enrollments. In contrast, other legislators place greater emphasis on research and selective admissions for UVA and VPI. They expect these non-urban universities to maintain their present sizes regardless of statewide changes in enrollment levels.

Legislators called attention to the community colleges and predominantly black colleges, saying it is important to understand the differences in the missions of these institutions and those of the urban institutions. Some urban institutions and community colleges may be on a collision course. Northern Virginia Community College enrolls over 30,000 students and must eventually come to terms with George Mason University nearby, say these leaders.

The most prominent condition affecting public higher education at this time is the scarcity of public money. Legislators feel the state cannot afford to transform the urban institutions into comprehensive universities which would require levels of support comparable to UVA and VPI. Moreover, 1979-80 enrollments, quite unexpectedly, fell below projected levels at two urban institutions, resulting in reduced budgets.

Presidents of the three urban universities have taken steps recently to strengthen communications with the legislature by meeting with legislative delegations in Richmond, Fairfax, and Norfolk. The presidents have also organized gatherings for all three delegations combined, meeting while the General Assembly is in session. At these meetings the university heads have called attention to the special circumstances and needs of their campuses. They have also emphasized their public service and continuing education functions, services to local businesses and industries, and described their impact on the local economy.

Legislators have some concerns about the existing budget process and questioned whether the State Council's budget formula might be an obstacle to progress. Under the current process, guidelines for institutional budget requests are based on FTE enrollments. Some legislators think other factors ought to receive more weight. For example, they observe that the urban institutions operate longer hours than other institutions, and thus incur higher utility and maintenance costs. At some institutions, many of the facilities are inadequate. Many of VCU's classrooms, for example, are in older buildings which are protected from renovation by historic preservation policies. Some institutional officials felt that the urban insitutions have been neglected financially in the past and that their special circumstances should be considered in the budget development process.

Another issue of concern to legislators and the Council of Higher Education relates to both mission and finance. It concerns the place of full-time residential students on urban campuses and the costs of building and paying for dormitories. Universities traditionally have at least a core of residential students. Residential students require not only dormitories but more extensive recreational, athletic, and service facilities. These facilities entail long-term financial commitments for debt service. There is a perceived relationship by some between the availability of dormitories and institutional competition for students, and

legislators tend to favor mitigating competition for residential students at this time. The Council has gone on record as being ". . . extremely concerned that the construction of additional residential facilities at the urban, primarily commuter universities will aggravate enrollment difficulties throughout the system of higher education."

Legislative involvement in these matters may increase in the next few years. Reapportionment will follow release of the new Census data, and Virginia's urban districts are expected to gain additional representatives in the State House. Legislators agreed that this would strengthen the position of the urban universities in the statewide system of higher education.

George Mason University

The main campus of George Mason University is 16 miles west of Washington, D.C., in an area serving nearly one million people. Other postsecondary institutions in the vicinity include Northern Virginia Community College (with over 30,000 students enrolled on six campuses), extension centers of the University of Virginia and Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, and the independent Marymount College of Virginia.

George Mason University began as an outgrowth of an extension center established in northern Virginia in 1948 by the University of Virginia. In 1956, the University of Virginia established a coeducational, two-year branch called University College, which opened with 17 students the following year. The city of Fairfax donated 150 acres for a permanent campus. In 1960, the institution was named for the Virginia statesman, George Mason, and was given community college status. The legislature authorized George Mason to become a four-year institution in 1966, and gave it a long-range mandate to expand into a major university. The first senior class received bachelor's degrees in 1970; graduate degrees were first conferred in 1971. The branch college was made a freestanding institution, George Mason University, in 1972. The legislature granted GMU formal university status and established a law school there in 1979, and elevated the institution to doctoral status effective in 1980. During the 1970s GMU acquired ample undeveloped acreage for future expansion, 567 acres altogether. Parking lots are prominent at the commuter campus, and the overall spaciousness of the campus and its modern, low-profile buildings invite more intensive use in the future. Today, the university offers degree programs at three campuses and 25 off-campus sites. The GMU School of Law operates in Arlington, closer to Washington, D.C., near a subway station on the metro rapid transit system. A north campus is situated within the city of Fairfax.

People and Programs

Enrollments at GMU grew rapidly throughout the 1970s, from 2,390 students in 1970 to 12,249 students in 1979. Full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollments totaled 8,299 in 1979. Of this number, 82 percent were undergraduate and 18 percent graduate students. GMU accepted 84 percent of first-time freshman applicants in 1978 and 89 percent of graduate student applicants. About half of entering freshmen came from the top one-third of their high school classes. Average SAT scores of entering freshmen exceeded the nationwide average. At the graduate level, 52 percent of the students are women, 6 percent are minority, and 14 percent pay out-of-state tuition. This 14 percent includes 9 percent who live in the D.C. metropolitan area. Among law students, 77 percent are male and less than 2 percent minority.

In 1979, 51 percent of GMU's students enrolled on a part-time basis. The rates were different by level of student, with only 22 percent of underclassmen studying part time, 44 percent of upperclassmen, and 84 percent of graduate students. Most students commute to classes, since GMU has residence apartments capable of serving only 496 students. Ninety-five percent of the students come to classes from the cities and counties immediately surrounding the university. Foreign students numbered 174 in 1979.

Transfer students comprise 16 percent of the student body, and one-third of these have come to GMU from nearby Northern Virginia Community College. Students attend classes in the greatest numbers at 11:30 a.m. and at 7:00 p.m. on Tuesdays and Thursdays. Six percent of students enroll through courses at 25 off-campus locations. Most off-campus students are at the graduate level, and they account for 13 percent of all graduate students. Only three percent of undergraduates study off-campus.

The university serves a student body which averages 27 years of age. Although most full-time students are of the traditional college-going ages of 18 to 21, nearly all part-time students are 22 or older, resulting in a younger and an older cluster of students.

Forty percent of the students at GMU work full time. Thirty-seven percent study in evening classes only, and summer sessions are large. Enrollment levels are projected to continue growing through most of the 1980s — approaching a 75 percent increase over the decade — but the previous pattern of growth shows part-time students increasing faster than full-time students. Graduate students constituted 27 percent of headcount enrollment in 1979, but this figure is projected to climb to 36 percent by 1985. GMU instruction emphasizes preparation for careers, together with studies in the arts and sciences. The university encourages faculty to conduct research which involves students in the process. Externally-sponsored research support totaled only $151,729 in 1977-78.

The statute creating GMU charges it to provide leadership in identifying and meeting the higher education needs of all who reside in northern Virginia. To accomplish this, the university has stated the following goals:

† To develop programs which take advantage of the unique laboratory-like setting of the area, a center of national and international activities;
† To develop in students desirable qualities, values, and career-related capabilities;
† To serve degree-seeking persons, as well as individuals who do not seek degrees;
† To create an academic, social, and physical environment beneficial to more mature students as well as younger students;
† To encourage research as an integral part of the learning process by both students and faculty.

In 1979, the General Assembly elevated GMU to doctoral status, permitting it to offer — beginning in 1980 — doctoral programs approved by the State Council of Higher Education. The Council's mission narrative for George Mason University predicts that ". . . none of the changes and developments will affect the university more profoundly than the introduction of a select number of doctoral programs. Inauguration of the doctoral programs will result in a university which is qualitatively different in structure, instruction, faculty, students, finance, and physical plant, even though the majority of academic activity will remain at the bachelor's and master's levels."

GMU was staffed with 697 teaching faculty in 1979, including 297 part-time lecturers. Organizationally, GMU has six major academic units: the College of Arts and Sciences, the College of Professional Studies, the School of Business Administration, the School of Law, the Graduate School, and the Division of Continuing Education.

Seventy-two percent of coursework in 1978-79 was taken within the College of Arts and Sciences, and the largest programs within that college are English, mathematics, biology, and psychology. However, business administration, if viewed as a single program, exceeded all other programs in production of student credit hours. Most undergraduate students seek degrees in business administration, nursing, and public affairs. At the graduate level, more degrees are earned in education, psychology, and business administration than in other fields.

In 1979, GMU acquired the private International School of Law in Arlington, Virginia. Legislative approval of the new school came after three previous attempts to obtain statutory endorsement had failed. The State Council of Higher Education had concluded, after studying each proposal, that the state did not need a third publicly-supported school of law. (In addition to law schools at the University of Virginia and VPI, two independent institutions operate law programs — the University of Richmond and Washington and Lee University.) GMU helped secure legislative approval by purchasing the International School's land, facilities, and library through the George Mason University Foundation, a tax-exempt fund-raising organization established to assist the university. The school and its property were then presented to GMU as a gift, estimated in value at $8 million. This action helped the cause of those GMU supporters who claimed a low-cost, public law school was needed for residents of northern Virginia. Some observers submit that approval by the General Assembly was a result of a trade-off between urban and rural legislators, who a year earlier had teamed up to approve a new regional school of veterinary medicine at VPI.

The GMU "Extended Studies Program," operated by the continuing education division, allows persons who may not meet regular graduate admissions criteria to enroll without being formally admitted to the university. Up to 12 hours of extended studies graduate credits may be subsequently applied toward a degree, following acceptance into a degree program. The extended studies program offers an opportunity to potential degree-seeking students to familiarize themselves with various degree programs. This approach is useful both to undergraduate students whose previous academic achievement and experience might otherwise deter them from further study, and to older, working college graduates who are not completely prepared to commit themselves to graduate degree programs or to meet the university's full admission requirements. In 1978, 1,086 students enrolled in graduate-level studies through this route — a 15 percent increase from the previous year. An additional 905 students enrolled in extended studies at the undergraduate level.

Future Plans

The State Council approved 13 new degree programs, including three at the graduate level, for implementation at GMU during 1980 and 1981. The graduate programs include the university's first doctoral programs — a Doctor of Arts in Education and a Doctor of Public Administration. A program leading to a Master of Science in Accounting is scheduled for 1981. Doctoral programs scheduled to begin in 1982 are economics, business administration, environmental biology/public policy, and applied psychology. Doctoral proposals submitted to the State Council for later consideration include physical science, social work, policy science, sociology, and humanities. By 1985, doctoral enrollments are projected to reach 1,000. Total graduate and professional enrollments for 1985 are targeted at 5,915.

In developing its new program ideas and submitting them as proposals to the State Council, GMU has viewed itself as a young, fast-growing institution — the only senior institution — in a still-growing area of one million people where the demands for educational services are great. Most of the new degree programs are designed to serve placebound adults who wish to pursue graduate degrees. The rationale is to provide appropriate educational

programs clearly in demand in the region, with many tailored exclusively to the needs of those northern Virginians who work in government or for the hundreds of corporations connected with the government. The new programs build largely on existing areas of competency in the university. Many are new tracks or options within existing programs, and others are multi-disciplinary, drawing on present or planned expertise in several fields.

Proposals for new engineering programs have been deferred by the State Council, primarily due to statewide financial constraints. Engineering programs are relatively expensive, but demand exists in northern Virginia and throughout the eastern part of the state, particularly in the electrical engineering and computer science fields. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University currently offers courses in this area of the state. However, the State Council is promoting a cooperative response on the part of GMU and other institutions, as mentioned in the introduction to this report.

The leadership at GMU sees great opportunity for the university, owing to its urban location and the northern Virginia area in particular. Washington, D.C. and its environs are an international center of power, and GMU seeks to draw on the special talents and events from its environment. GMU officials feel the effective urban university makes use of local resources through adjunct faculty, internships, and consultancies. To take fuller advantage of these opportunities, the university will seek to develop a broad, comprehensive array of professional and graduate programs. GMU is viewed by many on its staff as a viable candidate to become the outstanding institution of higher education in the nation's capital.

Universities in metropolitan areas respond in different ways to their circumstances. Not all public campuses in urban settings assume urban missions, providing programs for inner-city dwellers and middle-class professionals and seeking solutions to urban problems. GMU is by virtue of its location a suburban institution, and its student body is 93 percent white. Many residents of northern Virginia have moved into the area from other regions of the country and the "turnover" of households is higher than that of other cities. For these and other reasons, many GMU staff seem uncomfortable with the notion that the university should be forced into an "urban university mold."

GMU is passing through a transitional phase in its history — from comparative insularity to more active involvement and interdependence with its environment; from a previous identity as two-year branch and later a four-year branch of the University of Virginia to operation as a separate, expanding university. As a four-year college, George Mason had a liberal arts mission. It was provincial, essentially unkown beyond Fairfax county, and uninvolved with urban activities. As the metropolitan area grew around it, GMU matured too. George Mason officials expect to offer practical doctoral programs for mid-career people and include studies in public policy as part of the core requirements for most advanced degrees. In the area of development, the leadership seeks support for endowed chairs, works to attract top faculty, and encourages sponsored research. If a conflict should arise in the future between open door admissions and selectivity, it might be resolved by applying selective enrollment at the upperclass and graduate levels.

Like other institutions which have experienced rapid expansion in a short time, GMU has a blend of older traditions and newer identities. On one hand, there is some indication of resistance among the old guard faculty (who came to the liberal arts college before 1972) to the process of changing and upgrading the faculty with new people who bring stronger credentials, more active publication and research, and higher salary demands. Some of the longer-term faculty may have felt Rotary Club membership, for example, was more useful than research. On the other hand, the enrollment growth — especially the addition of

graduate students — has changed the character of the institution. In response to this growth the university has hired many younger faculty, average age 35. They tend to be well-trained and have degrees from highly-respected institutions. GMU now seeks senior faculty, perhaps a dozen, to help younger faculty develop. One useful approach to recruitment is to get senior visiting professors to come to GMU for a year to chair search committees. These "outsiders" recognize good prospects in their disciplines, and are somewhat insulated from the internal faculty resistance.

The ingredients required for becoming a first-class university include many things, among them financial support and leadership. The university strives to build a first-class faculty, and the area's high levels of salaries and cost of living present a growing problem. Housing especially is very expensive in northern Virginia. GMU faculty are paid at the same rates as other Virginia faculty, but GMU competes for personnel with the federal government and the northern Virginia knowledge industry, which pay substantially higher rates for good talent.

The leadership perceives new avenues to pursue support and influence. The contemporary state university in an urban location is in a position to draw on its political representation in the legislature for financial support. Political representatives are becoming more responsive to local needs. Moreover, urban settings offer opportunities to develop relationships through processes similar to those used by land-grant agricultural extension. GMU's leadership believes the university's potential depends on its own skill and vision in light of state agency limitations and funding constraints. For example, GMU is not satisfied with its library facilities and, therefore, runs a minibus daily to the Library of Congress and to federal agency libraries.

GMU staff state the university's growth here will not ruin other institutions in Virginia. Northern Virginia's Fairfax county is the largest supplier of students to Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, located in southwest Virginia. GMU attracts 22 percent of its student body from Fairfax county now and may get nearly 30 percent in the future, but the population is so large that GMU claims it can grow without starving other institutions.

GMU staff point out that while the state higher education coordinating board, the Council of Higher Education, exercises strong control over the university, the Council's power is not absolute. Ultimately, the Council is not likely to prevent program development in the face of strong demands from constituents. The relationship between GMU and the Council includes accommodation of diverse interests and contraints. At the Council's behest, GMU is working with other Virginia institutions to advance the possibility of an engineering consortium for eastern Virginia. GMU could push a strong case for creating an engineering school of its own, but that would not be appropriate at present.

On another issue, the Council and other state officials oppose building more dormitories at GMU and other urban institutions. They believe additional dormitories would shift the competitive balance for residential students away from the existing residential institutions to the urban institutions. This policy is advanced in spite of a housing shortage around GMU. There is some feeling at GMU that officals in Richmond do not want the urban universities to become "real universities."

The message that GMU leaders wish to send to Richmond is that Virginia's health depends on the health of the urban crescent, and its economy and culture. They feel the state should not deny appropriate programs in appropriate areas, and should promote what is best for the state as a whole.

A Comparison of Students of Two Doctoral Programs in an Urban and in a "Flagship" University

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Introduction

One of the issues in higher educational planning involving relationships between public "flagship" and emerging urban institutions within the same state is allocation of doctoral and professional programs. Most advanced programs were originally established in the older flagship institutions of each state. As demand for wider access to graduate education mushroomed during the Sixties and Seventies, increasing numbers of requests to expand their offerings at graduate levels were submitted by the newer urban institutions, thus duplicating expensive programs already offered at flagship universities.

The justification often advanced for establishment of doctoral programs at urban locations is that of serving students who would otherwise not be able to attend such a program. This justification implies significant differences among doctoral students. This study compares the characteristics of doctoral students at two psychology programs — one at Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU) and the other at the University of Virginia (UVA). The doctoral psychology program at VCU, the urban institution in Richmond, was established in 1971 and now enrolls substantially more students than the UVA program. The doctoral program at UVA, in Charlottesville, was established in 1932.

In some instances, establishment of advanced programs in urban settings reflects concentrations of resources or students that do not exist in the frequently more remote flagship settings. This justification applies, for example, to medical specialties that rely on large urban teaching hospitals, and to business administration specialties that serve students employed by business firms in the urban areas. Likewise, because of the heavy concentration of employed teachers in the metropolitan areas who attend evening and summer classes in pursuit of licensing requirements, career advancement, or salary increases, sixth year and doctoral programs in education have been widely approved in urban settings, thereby duplicating existing flagship programs.

Duplication of arts and science doctoral programs at urban settings does not rest on the justification of sheer mass of students to be served, nor on the availability of practicum opportunities — since they are usually not relevant for study in a traditional liberal arts field. Rather, the rationale for duplication of arts and science specialties rests primarily on the issue of providing access to placebound students who cannot avail themselves of doctoral studies if they have to move to the usually more remote setting of the state's flagship institution. The question then arises, whether the students in newer urban programs in fact differ significantly from those enrolled in the comparable program offered by the flagship institution. Why are they more placebound than the students who do make the move to the

flagship progam? If they are different, are these differences indicative of "placeboundness" or do they reflect other factors? It is on these questions of access that this analysis focuses.

The two psychology programs do not ideally fit the criteria for a pure investigation of access, or the identification of differences among the students attending the urban and the flagship programs. The two programs do represent the two settings — a recently established program in an urban area, and a more mature program at a flagship institution. Also they do represent a discipline for which the number of aspiring doctorates does not yet approach the number in the field of education, so that sheer mass does not yet constitute the same kind of rationale for urban doctoral programs as is the case in the field of education.

However, the two programs do not have the same emphasis. The urban program has a strong orientation to "clinical" psychology, while the flagship program is more heavily involved in the "experimental" area. The need for practicum opportunities in agencies, especially for students pursuing "clinical" specialization, is more readily met in the urban setting, and differentiates psychology from other arts and science fields where the issue of access and student differences might be analyzed without the complicating factor of internship possibilities. Thus, to the extent that findings of this analysis might not give unequivocal evidence of need to provide access on the basis of the measured characteristics of the programs' participants, there are additional circumstances that no doubt entered into consideration in establishing the newer urban program.

Methods

To determine the characteristics of the doctoral students of the two programs and their differences, if any, a questionnaire was mailed to all currently enrolled doctoral students and to the two programs' recent graduates, beginning with the class of 1974. The following response rates were obtained with two mailings.

	Total Mailed	Responses	Percent Responses
University of Virginia			
Current Students	48	37	77.1
Graduates	56	35	62.5
Virginia Commonwealth University			
Current Students	128	99	77.3
Graduates	77	56	72.7
TOTAL	309	227	73.5

The characteristics of the two programs' respondents were analyzed separately for current students and for graduates. For some variables, a statistically significant difference was found for graduate respondents, but not for current student respondents. The reverse situation also occurred. An overview of the findings from the survey responses is summarized below.

Statistical significance was determined by applying the chi-square test. "Statistically significant" refers to a probability of less than 10 percent. Since the test of significance indicates the possibility that differences could occur by chance, differences with the lowest percentages mean they are least likely to occur by chance, and therefore are most indicative of true underlying differences between students of the two programs. A detailed listing of the variables and their classification by level of significance is found in Table 1.

Findings

Variables on Which Both Current Student and Graduate Respondents of the Two Programs Are Significantly Different

1. Area of Specialization — VCU respondents tend to fall in the "clinical" area, while UVA respondents fall in the "experimental" area. These differences are also reflected in the differences of the jobs held by the graduates of the two programs: UVA graduates are more likely to hold academic jobs; VCU graduates tend to work in health and social service agencies.

2. Age at Enrollment in the Program — VCU respondents are slightly older.

3. Selectivity of the Prior College Attended — UVA respondents attend more selective institutions, according to the criterion that was used to determine selectivity.

4. Quantitative Graduate Record Examination Scores — UVA respondents score higher.

5. Geographic Location of the Prior College Attended — UVA respondents are more likely to come from out-of-state colleges.

6. Likelihood of Having Applied to Other Doctoral Programs — VCU respondents are less likely to have applied elsewhere. UVA respondents are also more likely to have applied to the more prestigious doctoral programs, according to the criterion used to evaluate prestige of departments.

7. Likelihood of Having Been Accepted by Another Program — UVA respondents are more likely to have been accepted elsewhere, and by more prestigious programs.

8. First Alternate Program — UVA respondents are more likely to list out-of-state programs as their first alternate possibility, in case of non-acceptance by the program in which they are now enrolled.

9. Location of Program as Reason for Choice — VCU respondents are more likely to be governed by program location, and UVA respondents by program characteristics.

10. Out-of-State Residence Prior to Enrollment — UVA respondents are more likely to have lived out-of-state, and therefore they are also less likely to be paying in-state tuition.

11. Primary Source of Income While in Program — For UVA respondents, student research or teaching assistantships or fellowships are more likely to constitute the primary source of income.

12. Hours Spent Studying — UVA respondents report more such hours.

13. Employment Status While in Graduate Program — UVA respondents are more likely to be working while enrolled.

14. Geographic Location of Graduates' Jobs — The survey instrument did not ask for the location of the job held by graduates of the programs. However, from the mailing addresses of the graduates, it is clear that UVA graduates are more geographically dispersed than VCU graduates. Two-thirds of the UVA graduates are located outside of Virginia, Maryland, and the District of Columbia. Only 27 percent of the VCU graduates are similarly dispersed.

Variables on Which Both Current Student and Graduate Respondents of the Two Programs Show No Significant Differences

1. Sex — Over half of the current student respondents are female.

2. Race — Almost no minority respondents are found in either program.

3. Year When Respondents Enrolled — One program is not more heavily represented by respondents from earlier years than the other program.

4. Number of Years to Complete Coursework and Earn Degree — The two programs do not differ.

5. Time Elapsed Between Graduation with Prior Degree and Enrollment in Doctoral Program — Over half enroll in the doctoral program within one year of having completed their prior degree.

6. Major of Prior Degree — Psychology is the major for the overwhelming majority of the respondents of both programs.

7. Consideration of Other Discipline if Not Admitted to Doctoral Psychology Program — Respondents of both programs are committed to remain in psychology.

8. Who Supports Them Financially? — The most frequent situtation for both groups is that of a single individual who is not financially dependent on family or spouse.

9. Hours Spent in Classes — The two groups are similar in the number of hours spent attending classes.

10. Education Expenses — Approximately one-fifth of the current student respondents report tuition, books, and other educational costs exceeding $2,000 per year. As would be expected, there has been an increase in the proportion reporting these higher educational costs in the current student group as compared to the earlier graduate group.

11. Hours Spent on Primary Job — Among the current student respondents, 40 percent work more than 20 hours per week, while 20 percent of the graduate groups worked similar hours.

12. Jobs Held Prior to Doctoral Program — There is no difference in the likelihood of prior employment nor in the type of job field.

13. Employment Status After Completing Doctoral Program (This variable applies only to the graduate respondents) — There is no difference in whether or not the graduates are employed, in how related the jobs are to their studies, or in salaries earned. On three job satisfaction items (challenge, advancement possibilities, and how job meets expectations), the two groups do not differ.

Variables on Which Current Student Respondents Differ Significantly But Graduate Respondents Do Not

1. Marital Status — UVA current students are more apt to be married than the VCU group.

2. Mothers' Educational Level — UVA current students' mothers have higher levels of education.

3. Type of Job While in Doctoral Program — UVA current students are more likely to hold student research and teaching assistantships or other "student-type" jobs and to earn less than VCU current students. VCU current student respondents are more likely to hold the same jobs they held prior to enrollment in the doctoral program.

4. Salary of Job Held Prior to Enrollment — VCU respondents hold higher paying jobs.

5. Verbal Graduate Record Examination (GRE) Scores — Current UVA students score higher than VCU respondents.

Variables on Which Graduate Respondents Are Significantly Different But Current Student Respondents Are Not Significantly Different

1. Number of Children — VCU graduates are more likely to have children.

2. Parents' Income — UVA graduates' parents average higher incomes than parents of VCU graduates.

3. Fathers' Educational Level — UVA graduates' fathers are more likely to have higher levels of education than VCU graduates' fathers.

4. Highest Prior Degree — VCU graduates are more likely to have started the doctoral program after having already earned an advanced degree.

Table 1

Analysis of Variables on Characteristics of UVA and VCU Respondents

	Significant Differences (at 10% level)		Non-Significant Differences	
	Current Students	Graduates	Current Students	Graduates
Area of Specialization	X*	X*		
Age at Enrollment in the Program	X	X*		
Sex			X	X
Race			X	X
Marital Status	X*			X
Number of Children		X**	X	
Parents' Income		X**	X	
Fathers' Educational Level		X**	X	
Mothers' Educational Level	X**			X
Year When Respondents Enrolled			X	X
Years to Complete Coursework			X	X
Years to Earn Degree			X	X
Highest Prior Degree		X*	X	
Selectivity of Prior College Attended	X*	X*		
Geographic Location of Prior College	X**	X**		
Years Between Prior Degree and Enrollment			X	X
Where Else Applied	X*	X**		
Accepted Elsewhere	X*	X		
First Alternative	X*	X**		
Considered Other Discipline			X	X
Reasons for Choosing Program	X*	X*		
Financial Status			X	X
Lived Where	X*	X*		
In-State Tuition	X*	X*		
Primary Income Now	X*	not asked		
Primary Total Income	X*	X**		
Educational Expenses			X	X
Hours Spent in Class			X	X
Hours Spent Preparing	X*	X		
Employed While in Doctoral Program	X	X		
Primary Job in Graduate School	X*	X		
Salary, Primary Job in Graduate School	X*			X
Hours Spent on Primary Job			X	X
Employed Before			X	X
Type of Prior Job			X	X
Salary of Prior Job	X			X
Verbal GRE Score	X*			X
Quantitative GRE Score	X**	X**		
Now Employed				X
Type of Graduate Job		X*		
Salary of Graduate Job				X
Hours-Graduate Job		X		

*Significant at the 1% level.

**Significant at the 5% level.

Discussion

The similarities and differences between students at the two institutions allow for some meaningful generalizations. There is no difference, for example, of one institution serving more minorities or women than the other. Thus, the notion that the programs at the urban institutions might be specifically justified in terms of serving groups who in the past have had less access to doctoral education is not borne out.

In terms of socioeconomic background of the students, as determined by parental levels of education and income, there is a difference between the two groups of graduates. Among the current students, however, this difference is not significant; the income distribution of the VCU current students' parents is not significantly different from that of the UVA students. Neither is the level of the fathers' educational attainment. (However, for the mothers' educational attainment there is a difference, with the VCU current students' mothers having significantly less education than the UVA counterparts.)

The VCU group is older than the UVA group, although there, too, the difference is less between current than between former students. Marital status differs for the current students, but it is the UVA group that is more likely to be married than the VCU group, although the latter group includes more divorced or separated individuals. While the VCU graduate respondents are more likely to have children, this difference is not significant for current students. In sum, on selected socioeconomic and demographic variables, the UVA and VCU groups are apparently becoming increasingly similar in those factors where they formerly differed.

Surprisingly, the VCU group in the more urban setting is less likely to be employed while in the doctoral program than the UVA group. This finding does not corroborate the prevailing notion that postgraduate education in urban institutions serves working students. The UVA respondents are a more selective group than the VCU respondents in three ways: they differ in GRE scores, in the greater likelihood of UVA students to have earned their previous degrees from more prestigious institutions, and in having been accepted for admission by "selective" doctoral psychology programs, as defined in this analysis.

The VCU respondents, for whatever reason, appear to be less mobile than the UVA respondents in several ways. They are more likely to have applied only to the program they are attending than is the UVA group. They are more likely to have attended their current institution for their previous work, and if they attended a different institution, they are more likely to have come from within Virginia than from out-of-state. However, in terms of students' out-of-state origin and of the institution serving its own prior students, the difference between VCU and UVA is narrower for current students than for the graduate respondents.

The VCU students' lesser mobility is also indicated by the finding that they were less likely to have been accepted by other programs for their doctoral studies than was the case with UVA respondents. Graduates of UVA are more likely to be working outside the state of Virginia than are the VCU graduates. Some of this difference may be accounted for by the different emphasis of the two programs. "Experimental" psychology — the most frequent area of specialization at UVA — is more likely to lead to academic employment, in which a larger proportion of UVA graduates, than of the VCU group, is found. Since the academic market is a national one, the "experimental" area may naturally lead to a wider dispersion of employment. The VCU program, where the "clinical" specialization is the most frequent one, is more likely to produce graduates who find jobs within Virginia.

When respondents were asked outright whether (1) location, (2) characteristics of the program, or (3) some other consideration was the prime reason for choosing their doctoral programs, the percentage indicating "location" as the prime reason is much higher for the VCU groups than for the UVA groups.

Why are the VCU respondents less mobile? Is it because they are a less "selective" group with a lesser chance of being accepted elsewhere, or because of other reasons that reduce the likelihood of their moving? What evidence is there of such reasons for being tied down? The representation of women in the two programs is not statistically different. However, the location of the program is more important for women than for men at VCU (but not so at UVA). Also, the likelihood of the VCU women to indicate "location" as their reason for program choice is greater than for the UVA women. The differences between women of the two institutions on the "location" factor are shown below, together with the differences in the degree to which women indicate financial dependence on spouses.

	Current Female Students		Graduate Females	
	UVA	VCU	UVA	VCU
"Location" as primary reason for program choice	29%	50%[a]	27%	65%[a]
Financial Status: Dependent on spouse as descriptor of financial status	33%	39%[b]	18%	65%[c]

[a]Significant at the .09 level
[b]Not statistically significant
[c]Significant at the .004 level

The greater likelihood of VCU women to indicate they are dependent on spouses (although this seems to be declining in importance) may help to explain the greater likelihood of VCU women to indicate "location" as their primary reason for choosing the VCU program. (However, no significant difference was found, for men and women combined, on the financial status variable between UVA and VCU current student and graduate respondents.)

Another reason that may explain the greater probability of VCU than of UVA respondents to check the "location" factor is that VCU respondents are more likely than UVA respondents (both current student and graduate groups) to be in the same jobs they held prior to enrolling in the programs. Among the currently employed VCU respondents, 22 percent hold the same jobs; of VCU employed graduates, 8 percent hold the same job. In contrast, none of the UVA respondents are holding jobs while in the programs that are the same as those held before.

Conclusions

In conclusion, the two groups exhibit few differences on the socioeconomic and demographic variables. Moreover, what differences were found among graduates appear to have diminished among current students. The current VCU students are more nearly like the current UVA students in terms of parental income and education, and the age of the student, than is the case when graduate respondents are compared.

There are definite differences in the mobility of the current UVA and VCU students. The older flagship institution tends to serve a group of students who have more options than those attending the urban program. The greater options for the UVA students stem not only from their greater possibilities for geographical mobility, but also from their previous preparation as compared with that of the VCU respondents. They tend to come from more prestigious undergraduate schools, have higher GREs, and are more apt to be admitted to other selective doctoral psychology programs. The VCU group is more placebound, both in terms of how students perceive themselves, and in accordance with the objective factors that explain what placebound means. Part of their lack of mobility may be explained by their prior preparation. Coming from less prestigious schools, and with lower GRE scores, restricts their choice of graduate programs. For the women especially, being placebound at VCU is also explained in part by dependence on spouses. For some among both sexes at VCU, permanent employment that is continued during pursuit of graduate studies also explains lack of mobility.

What are the possible policy implications from the findings of this admittedly limited investigation of one doctoral discipline in one state where it is offered by both an emerging urban and an established flagship institution? There is no doubt that the urban program offers career opportunities for students who for both scholastic and nonscholastic reasons would not have had these chances if the flagship program were the only available one. Some, but not all, of those who might have gained admission to UVA would nevertheless not have been able to move.

So far the job market has accommodated the graduates of both programs. The VCU graduates tend to work within Virginia, while the UVA graduates are more dispersed. Most of these graduates indicate high levels of satisfaction in their jobs. From the standpoint of meeting career aspirations of Virginia residents, the establishment of a duplicate program in the urban setting seems well justified. If employment of graduates within the state is an important criterion for evaluating the need for duplicative programs, the urban program at VCU is more likely to meet this objective. This result may be related to the difference in emphasis of the VCU program, which produces graduates in the clinical specialties, while UVA emphasizes the experimental specialties.

A cost-benefit study might provide information indicating the relative degree to which the two programs are justified in a single state system of higher education. Does the extra income (and therefore presumably the extra services provided to the populace) generated by virtue of the additional psychology doctorates match the cost of providing the program? Do the two programs differ in terms of benefits relative to costs if only those costs and benefits are included that accrue to and are borne by Virginians? These are the ultimate questions that are not answered, but that could be investigated if planners wished to pursue further evaluation of doctoral offerings.

Characteristics of Larger Urban Universities

A brief profile of large urban universities in the South, contrasting them with non-urban comprehensive state universities, resulted from the initial phase of the study. The most noticeable difference between the two kinds of campuses is the extent of their history. All of the non-urban institutions were established before 1900, most between 1850 and 1875. All but one of the urban campuses, on the other hand, either have been created or made a free-standing unit of the state system since 1955.

An analysis of fall 1978 enrollment data — by degree level, sex, race, and status of attendance — shows some marked differences between universities located in urban areas and the flagship institutions in selected Southern states. These regional generalizations are based on comparisons of 15 urban and 13 non-urban institutions located in 10 states. A complete list of the 28 universities is found in the appendix.

The 15 urban universities range in enrollment from 8,788 to 29,665. The average is 16,162. Among 13 non-urban campuses, enrollments range from 15,688 to 43,095, with an average of 24,366 (see Table 2). In some states, the non-urban institution enrolls some two-and-a-half times as many students as the urban institution. In others, the enrollments are comparable. The most apparent contrasts are shown in the proportion of enrollments made up of part-time students. On 13 non-urban campuses, part-time enrollments range from 8.8 percent to 24.6 percent, with a median of 16.5 percent. At 15 urban institutions in these same states, the range is from 33.8 to 66.7 percent; and the median value, 44.0 percent.

Table 2

Enrollment Characteristics
Selected Urban and Non-Urban Universities in the South

	Urban Universities (n = 15)	Non-Urban Universities (n = 13)
Average Total Enrollment	16,162	24,366
Percent Part-Time	44.0	16.5
Undergraduate	34.0	9.2
Graduate	72.6	45.4
Percent Women	50.8	45.0
Percent Black	8.9	4.4

Note: All percentage figures are median values.

When enrollments are examined by level, it is evident that the largest difference in proportion of students who are part-time is found at the undergraduate level. The median proportion of undergraduate students who are enrolled part-time on non-urban campuses is 9.2 percent. At urban universities, median undergraduate part-time enrollment is 34.0 percent. Part-time enrollments in graduate programs are also quite different between the two groups of institutions. Part-time students account for 45.4 percent of graduate students at the median non-urban campus. The corresponding figure among urban campuses is 72.6 percent. Urban universities tend to enroll a slightly greater proportion of women than do non-urban institutions. Women make up 45.0 percent at the median non-urban campus, but urban campuses have a median value of 50.8 percent women. Enrollment of women is more evident at the graduate level. Part-time students are similarly distributed between men and women at both kinds of institutions; slightly over half are women. Blacks are more concentrated at urban universities, at all levels. On non-urban campuses in the 10-state sample, blacks comprise 0.7 to 9.7 percent (median 4.4 percent) of enrollments. At urban universities in these same states, black enrollments range from 2.6 percent to 18.8 percent (median 8.9 percent). Among part-time students, blacks are more heavily represented at urban schools (median 9.4 percent) than at non-urban campuses (median 4.2 percent). These figures do not reflect the enrollment of minorities other than blacks. In Florida and Texas, where greater concentrations of Hispanics are found, enrollments included noticeable representation of this minority group as well.

The presence of unclassified students is also more evident on urban campuses in general, but the definition of "unclassified" is subject to such wide variation that interinstitutional comparisons are not usually valid. Nonetheless, with few exceptions, urban schools show a higher proportion of enrollments as unclassified than do their less urban counterparts.

These indices reflect the major differences in enrollment patterns between these two kinds of institutions. On a few other enrollment variables, urban and non-urban comprehensive institutions are more similar than dissimilar. For instance, in distribution of enrollments among undergraduate, first professional, and graduate levels (for full- and part-time students combined) the differences between the pairs of schools are minor. Typically, these schools enroll 70 to 75 percent as undergraduates, 14 to 18 percent at the graduate level, and about 5 percent in professional programs, where such programs exist. Also, in first professional programs, the ratio of men to women (3 to 1) is quite similar in both kinds of institutions. There are, however, exceptions to these regional generalizations.

While urban institutions enroll a greater proportion of their student bodies on a part-time basis, data from 1977 show that both groups have similar indices of full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollments generated by part-time students. When the FTE of part-time students is expressed as a proportion of total part-time headcount enrollments, the resulting ratio reflects the average courseload of part-time students. In some states, this indicator reveals disparity, showing that part-time students at urban universities take heavier courseloads than those at the non-urban schools.

As shown in Table 3, urban campuses typically have more part-time faculty, lower percentages of faculty holding tenure, greater representation by women and minorities among the faculty, fewer faculty with a terminal degree, and fewer holding the rank of full professor.

A simple analysis of the academic organization of the institutions shows some basic differences and similarities in the breadth of their offerings and the types of programs available. All of the 13 non-urban universities offer doctoral programs. Eleven of the 15 urban institutions award the doctorate. The non-urban institutions have an average of 13

Table 3

Faculty Characteristics
Selected Urban and Non-Urban Universities in the South

	Urban Universities (n = 15)	Non-Urban Universities (n = 13)
Percent Part-Time	20	7
Percent with Tenure	51	59
Percent Women	23	17
Percent Minorities	8	4
Percent with Terminal Degree	73	78
Percent at Rank of Full Professor	25	33

Note: All percentage figures are median values.

major academic units (e.g., arts and sciences, business, engineering, etc.) while the urban campuses average eight. All of the 28 institutions have schools of business, and all but two (both urban) have major units in education. Most in both groups have engineering, but only the urban locations have a division labeled technology or engineering technology. Architecture is more likely to be found at the non-urban location. As one might expect, agriculture is found only at the less urban institutions; but, in addition, journalism, home economics, and library science are not found at the urban institutions. Of a dozen schools of social work, eight are located on the less urban campuses. Nearly all the non-urban institutions have law schools, while only four of the urban campuses do. The number of allied health, medicine, nursing, and dentistry programs is about equal among institutions in the two groups. The urban campuses often reflect their urban orientation in the labels given some of their divisions: community services, public service, urban services, urban affairs, urban studies, governmental administration, and social services are examples.

A Comment About Methodology

For purposes of definition and structure, institutions selected for inclusion in the study group were public urban universities enrolling at least 10,000 students and located in Southern metropolitan centers with a population of a half million or more. These two criteria identified a group of 13 institutions. Two other institutions were added to the group due to their location in the largest city in their state (even though smaller than 500,000) and their adoption or assignment of an urban orientation and function. The 15 schools were distributed among 10 states. A second group of institutions, identified as the most comprehensive public research universities in these 10 states, was selected for comparative purposes. These campuses often are referred to as the "flagship" institutions, in most instances having been the first public institution established in their respective states. Four SREB states (Maryland, Mississippi, South Carolina, and West Virginia) were not represented in the sample, either because their flagship campuses are located in the state's most populous area or because their urban institutions are much smaller than 10,000 in enrollment.

Our first interest in the SREB study was to compare and contrast basic characteristics of these two groups of institutions. Second, we wanted to learn more about the recent development and future aspirations of urban institutions and how their roles were perceived by legislators and others. The methods used to gather information for these two phases of the study included compilation of statistics on enrollments, faculty, and programs, and personal interviews with legislators, state agency staff, and campus leaders. Data on fall 1978 student enrollments were obtained from National Center for Education Statistics data tapes. Program information was taken from catalogs, most from the academic year 1979-80. Fall 1979 faculty characteristics were gathered through a survey form directed to institutional research officers in January 1980. The site visit and interview phase of the study focused on six urban universities in three states — Florida, Kentucky, and Virginia — where the role of urban institutions has attracted particular attention in recent years. Over 100 interviews were conducted during the period February through May of 1980.

The critical groups or parties identified for interviews in this study included: key state legislators, such as chairpersons or ranking members and staff of education and appropriations committees, and selected representatives from urban districts or districts which included non-urban comprehensive universities; state higher education agency personnel — in particular, executive officers and academic officers; senior officers at flagship campuses; and a sampling of administrators and faculty at urban universities. In an attempt to lend structure to the sources of information at the six urban universities visited and to obtain a sampling of opinion during the brief site visits, interviews were requested with the following officials, their equivalent, or a representative: the president, the chief academic officer, the graduate dean, the dean of arts and sciences, a dean or director of a school with an applied or professional focus, the institutional research officer, the department head or a senior faculty member in a program which the institution felt to be one of its strongest, and a similar official in the institution's most recently initiated graduate program. A list of those persons interviewed during the formal site visits is provided in the appendix.

Appendix A

Urban and Non-Urban Universities Included in the SREB Study, 1980

State	Urban Universities	Non-Urban Universities
Alabama	University of Alabama in Birmingham	University of Alabama in Tuscaloosa
Arkansas	University of Arkansas, Little Rock	University of Arkansas, Fayetteville
Florida	*Florida International University* University of Central Florida *University of South Florida*	Florida State University University of Florida
Georgia	Georgia State University	University of Georgia
Kentucky	*University of Louisville*	University of Kentucky
Louisiana	University of New Orleans	Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge
North Carolina	University of North Carolina, Charlotte	University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill
Tennessee	Memphis State University	University of Tennessee, Knoxville
Texas	University of Houston University of Texas, Arlington	Texas A&M University University of Texas, Austin
Virginia	*George Mason University* *Old Dominion University* *Virginia Commonwealth University*	University of Virginia Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Institutions in italics were visited for preparation of case studies based on interviews.

Appendix B

Persons Interviewed for SREB Study, 1980

Florida

Legislators and Legislative Staff

Samuel P. Bell III
State Representative, Daytona Beach

Beverly B. Burnsed
State Representative, Lakeland

Pat Frank
State Senator, Tampa

Jack D. Gordon
State Senator, Miami Beach

Richard S. Hodes
State Representative, Tampa

William D. Law, Jr.
Staff Director, Committee on Higher Education
House of Representatives

Philip D. Lewis
State Senator and Senate President, West Palm Beach

Kenneth H. MacKay, Jr.
State Senator, Ocala

Herbert F. Morgan
State Representative, Tallahassee

Herman Myers
Staff Director, Committee on Education, Senate

William E. Sadowski
State Representative, Miami

Florida International University

William Duguid
Acting Director, Institutional Research

Robert Fisher
Vice President for Academic Affairs

Adam Herbert
Dean, School of Public Affairs and Services

Duane Kujawa
Professor, Finance and International Business

Patricia Lutterbie
Executive Assistant to the President

Jan Luytjes
Professor, Management

Karl Magnusen
Associate Dean, School of Business and Organizational Science

Anthony Marshall
Associate Dean, School of Hospitality Management

Jahn Staczek
Assistant Dean, School of Education

Mary Volcansek
Associate Dean, College of Arts and Sciences

Gregory Wolfe
President

University of South Florida

Donald J. Anderson
Director of Institutional Research

James Anker
Chairman, Department of Psychology

John Lott Brown
President

Charles McIntosh
Associate Dean, College of Business Administration

David W. Persky
Assistant to the Vice President for Academic Affairs

Carl D. Riggs
Vice President for Academic Affairs

William H. Scheuerle
Acting Director of Graduate Studies

David H. Smith
Dean, College of Arts and Letters

Ed Uprichard
Associate Dean, School of Education

Others in Florida

Robert A. Bryan
Vice President for Academic Affairs
University of Florida

Dallas Fox
Institutional Research Officer
University of Florida

Robert O. Lawton
Vice President for Academic Affairs
Florida State University

Roy E. McTarnaghan
Vice Chancellor for Academic Programs
State University System

David C. Montgomery
Director of Planning and Budgeting
State University System

John A. Nattress
Executive Vice President
University of Florida

Bernard F. Sliger
President
Florida State University

Illona Turrisi
Director, Budget and Analysis
Florida State University

Kentucky

Legislators

Allene A. Craddock
State Representative, Elizabethtown

David K. Karem
State Senator, Louisville

Robert P. Martin
State Senator, Richmond

Clyde W. Middleton
State Senator, Covington

Michael P. Moloney
State Senator, Lexington

Jody Richards
State Representative, Bowling Green

University of Louisville

Lois S. Cronholm
Dean, Arts and Sciences

Herbert Garfinkel
Vice President for Academic Affairs

Randall Holden
Associate Dean, Graduate School

Paul Jones
Associate Dean, Graduate School

Clara Leuthart
Director, Liberal Studies Program

James G. Miller
President

Stuart L. Rich
Director, Institutional Research

Thomas Van
Chairman, Department of English

James Witliff
Chairman, Department of Biochemistry, School of Medicine

Others in Kentucky

Peter H. Fitzgerald
Director, Policy and Operations Analysis
University of Kentucky

Ted Morford
Associate Executive Director
State Council for Higher Education

Edward Pritchard
Member
State Council for Higher Education

Wimberly Royster
Dean of Graduate Studies
University of Kentucky

Otis A. Singletary
President
University of Kentucky

Harry Snyder
Executive Director
State Council for Higher Education

Richard Wilson
Reporter, Louisville *Courier-Journal*

Virginia

Legislature and Legislative Staff

Richard M. Bagley
State Delegate, Hampton

Gerald L. Baliles
State Delegate, Richmond

Don Finley
Staff Director
House Appropriations Committee

Willard L. Lemmon
State Delegate, Marion

Mary A. Marshall
State Delegate, Arlington

Thomas J. Michie, Jr.
State Delegate, Charlottesville

Franklin M. Slayton
State Delegate, South Boston

George Mason University

Robert Clark
Chairman, Department of Public Affairs

Evelyn Cohelan
Chairman, Department of Nursing

Lloyd DeBoer
Dean, School of Business Administration

Robert T. Hawkes, Jr.
Dean of Continuing Education

George W. Johnson
President

Donald J. Mash
Vice President for Student Affairs

David R. Powers
Vice President for Academic Affairs

Charles R. Render
Director, Institutional Analysis

Martha A. Turnage
Vice President for Public Affairs

Thomas R. Williams
Dean of the Graduate School

Old Dominion University

Bruce J. Anderson
Chairman, Department of Educational Leadership and Services

Charles O. Burgess
Vice President for Academic Affairs and Provost

David R. Hager
Dean, School of Graduate Studies

Mark L. Perkins
Director of University Planning and Analysis

Dennis Rittenmeyer
Associate Vice President for Special Programs

Alfred B. Rollins, Jr.
President

Daniel Sonenshine
Professor, Biological Sciences

Thomas P. Wallace
Dean, School of Sciences and Health Professions

Virginia Commonwealth University

Edmund F. Ackell
President

Martin D. Adler
Professor, Social Work

Donald C. Bruegman
Vice President for Planning and Budget

William A. Glynn
Acting Dean of Arts and Sciences

Wayne C. Hall
Vice President for Academic Affairs

Laurin L. Henry
Dean, School of Community Services

David Hopp
Institutional Research Officer

Dan Johnson
Acting Chairman, Department of Sociology and Anthropology

William Ray
Chairman, Department of Psychology

John J. Salley
Vice President for Research and Dean of Graduate Studies

Lauren A. Woods
Acting Vice President for Health Sciences

Others Interviewed in Virginia

Avery Catlin
Executive Vice President
University of Virginia

Gordon K. Davies
Director
State Council of Higher Education

Walter J. Fabrycky
Dean, Research Division
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

John H. King
Director, Institutional Analysis
University of Virginia

William E. Lavery
President
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Bruce Nelson
Associate Provost
University of Virginia

Wayne H. Phelps
Research Associate
State Council of Higher Education

Adelle F. Robertson
Dean, Continuing Education
University of Virginia

Lon Savage
Executive to the President
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

William R. Van Dresser
Dean, Extension Education
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

John D. Wilson
Provost
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

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